The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, JUNE 21, 1888.

The Week.

As we go to press, the Republican Convention at Chicago is getting into working order. The speech of Mr. Thurston, the temporary Chairman of the Convention, throws light upon a dark place. The very decided stand he has taken against the nomination of a candidate who has declared that he would not accept it, proves that there was danger of Mr. Blaine's nomination after all, and that this danger was such as to warrant the presiding officer in making it the chief subject of his opening address. When we remember that Mr. Thurston was selected for the temporary Chairmanship over a Blaine man from California only by the casting vote of Mr. Jones, the head of the National Committee, it becomes plain that the strength of the Blaine-or-Busters in the Convention is formidable.

The *Tribune* has been publishing a number of interesting letters from random writers on the Republican nomination for the Presidency, which go far to supply the place of good editorial matter. The most significant of the series is the letter of Judge West of Ohio, sometimes called the "blind man eloquent," but more fittingly known as the blind leader of the blind, on account of his passionate prediction in the Convention of 1884 that Blaine would sweep the country if nominated. Mr. West confirms the statement, obscurely made by Murat Halstead two or three times, that Sherman sent word to Blaine before the Toledo Convention of last year that if Blaine were to be a candidate this year, Sherman would not stand in his way; and that the Florence letter was the answer to Mr. Sherman's communication. Judge West not only confirms this statement, but says that Halstead himself was the bearer of the communication. The fine logical deduction which the blind man eloquent draws from these premises is, that Sherman and everybody else ought to withdraw in favor of Blaine.

What may be called an inside history of the famous "Blaine Belshazzar Feast" at Delmonico's on the eve of the election in 1884, has been furnished to the Chicago press by "Steve" Elkins, who gave out the following statement there on Monday in reply to an assertion which had been made in the Chicago *Tribune*:

"Mr. S. B. Elkins has been much annoyed by a statement made in the *Tribune* yesterday, which charged him with responsibility for what is known in political history as 'Belshazzar's Feast,' a dinner given a few days before the Presidential election of 1884 by Cyrus Field, Jay Gould, and a number of New York millionaires. From a political point of view the dinner was an unfortunate event, because it was charged that Mr. Blaine was hand and glove with the money king of Wall Street. Mr. Elkins saw it would be unwise to have Mr. Blaine attend such a dinner, and he not only did all that he could to prevent Mr. Blaine's presence, but refused to go himself, thereby incurring Mr. Field's displeasure to such an extent that they did not speak for many weeks. These are facts well known to all persons who were in the Republican national headquarters in 1884."

While the dinner was, as Mr. Elkins says, "an unfortunate event from a political point of view," we have always understood that its greatest disappointment consisted in its failure from a financial point of view, campaign contributions from the millionaires present being much less generous than had been expected. Mr. Elkins's statement bears evidence that there has been an active search for a scapegoat for that feast going on in the party since the election four years ago.

There was a lively scene in the House of Representatives last week when Mr. Rayner of Maryland read the appeal for funds which James P. Foster, President of the Republican League of the United States, sent out confidentially a few weeks ago, a copy of which was published at the time. It was in this appeal that Mr. Foster quoted the words of a United States Senator in which the desire was expressed to put the "manufacturers of Pennsylvania under the fire and fry all the fat out of them," because they had refused to contribute to the campaign fund. We have tried in vain to satisfy our conjecture that this Senator was either Morrill or Edmunds, our inference from Foster's description of him being that he must "hail" from Vermont. When Mr. Rayner read the circular, Mr. Grout of Vermont said the Senator in question was not a Vermont man, and another member expressed a belief that a Kansas Senator was the person quoted. Mr. Grout also said that the charge that Edmunds or Morrill said it had been contradicted, but he did not say when or by whom, and we very much wish that he had. Will he kindly furnish us with the particulars for publication? There has been a dead silence on the subject of Foster's great appeal in all the Republican localities with which we have any means of communication.

Everybody at all familiar with Western sentiment knows that it is bitterly hostile to the railways. As one Republican editor said on Thursday: "The Western people are insane on the railroad question." Mr. Depew is, in our opinion, an innocent victim of this insanity, but that he would be a victim of it was so obvious from the outset of the talk about him as a candidate that we have never been able to understand how either he or his friends could for a moment look upon him seriously as a candidate. At the same time we are free to say that the Western hatred and fear of him as a monopolist who is a menace to the country, is entirely misplaced. The monopolists who are threatening the country's prosperity and safety are not the railway presidents, but the protected manufacturers and protected Trusts, and it is against them rather than against the railways that the popular wrath of the whole country should be directed. The railways are not helped by the tariff, but, on the contrary, are obliged to pay a heavy bonus on every steel rail they use, and are sufferers in common with the masses of the people in struggling along under the burdens which the war tariff places upon them.

The Richmond *Dispatch*, a Democratic paper which has forgotten the traditions of its party in the matter of centralization, laments the fact that the Blair bill, which it has supported, was "overlooked" by the Committee which constructed the St. Louis platform. We have serious doubts whether the measure was overlooked, for its friends never fail to push it upon attention on all possible occasions. The fact probably is, that the Committee on Resolutions recognized the absurdity of endorsing an un-Democratic measure, which the candidate nominated for Vice-President is committed to defeat if it should ever be left to his casting vote in the Senate, and which the candidate nominated for President is bound to veto if it should ever come to him from Congress. The veto of the Texas Seed Bill by Mr. Cleveland a year ago last winter insured the final defeat of the Blair bill, and it would have been an amazing exhibition of stultification if the St. Louis Convention had endorsed the moribund scheme. It is now an interesting question whether the Republican Convention will lend any countenance to a measure which many good Republicans have denounced as unconstitutional.

The speeches made at the dinner of the Reform Club on Saturday evening were elevated in tone, earnest in purpose, and full of hope and confidence as to the great campaign now beginning. One thing was made clear by Mr. Mills, and that is that the Tariff Bill now pending is *going to pass the House*, no matter how much time it takes. The Democratic party is pledged to this, and is going to redeem the pledge if it takes all summer, This was a cheering promise, not so much for what the bill itself contains, as for the assurance that there is no longer any hesitation or doubt among the majority as to the duties and necessities imposed upon them. The duty is to reduce the surplus. The necessity is to compel the Republicans to show their hand, and thus make an issue that has some meaning. The lessening of the revenue is something that all are agreed about; but so long as the Republicans can shout "protection" without telling what protection means, they will have the same advantage which they had in Oregon—the advantage of appearing to favor American industry as a whole as against foreign industry. But this false issue cannot be preserved after they shall have told us by their votes in the Senate what their method of reducing the surplus is. If they are for free whiskey as an alternative to *any* tariff reduction, let them say so. If they are in favor of any tariff re-

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duction at all, we shall at least have the chance to see what foreign industries they favor at the expense of American industries, and in what respect those foreign industries are better than the ones which they tell us the Mills bill favors.

Protection has been running mad in the House ever since the tariff debate began on the separate items, but it ran madder on Wednesday week than ever before. For example, a paragraph of the Mills bill was taken up which puts jute-spinning and jute-weaving machinery on the free list. Here the venerable Mr. Kelley came out strong. He had heard it said on this floor that jute machinery was not made in this country. He did not credit that statement. He had good reason to believe that it was made at Bridesburg, Pa. At all events he was sure that it was made somewhere in the New England States, because he had met a man from Boston, Mr. William Whitman, who had told him so. But even without Mr. Whitman's testimony it was ridiculous to suppose that it could not be made here, and if it was not made here, it ought to be. There was no difference in principle between jute machinery and cotton or woollen machinery. The only difference was in detail, and therefore the customs officers would not know a jute machine from a cotton machine when it was imported, and might let in a cotton machine free of duty by mistake, to the detriment of American industry. Mr. Breckinridge of Arkansas questioned Mr. Kelley in order to find out what he knew specifically and precisely—whether jute machines were or were not made in this country—and found out that Mr. Kelley knew nothing at all except what Mr. Whitman had told him. Further cross-examination of Kelley showed that Mr. Whitman was not in the jute-spinning business, and that his assertion was probably altogether conjectural, like Kelley's own. Then Mr. Breckinridge stated that the Committee of Ways and Means had had before them the leading jute-spinners of the country from Brooklyn, Boston, St. Louis, and Charleston, and that "the testimony of all these gentlemen was that not a particle of this machinery is made in this country." So far was it from being true that cotton and woollen machinery were substantially the same as jute machinery, in point of fact the different kinds of jute products required different kinds of machinery. For example, the machines used for making burlaps could not be used for making bagging.

The House proceeded to the tax on tin plates. Here again is an article not produced in this country, although protected by a duty of 35 per cent. ad valorem. The tax yields $6,000,000 of the detested surplus. One would suppose that there would be no opposition to the repeal of such a tax. On the contrary, the opposition was of the most stubborn kind, and predictions were made by Mr. Dalzell of Pennsylvania and Mr. J. D. Taylor of Ohio of great disasters to American industry if tin plates were admitted free? Why? Because the sheet-iron makers would lose a part of their trade. It was said that sheet iron was used for the roofing and siding of houses to some extent, and, if people could get tin at a reduction of 35 per cent., they would prefer it. How, then, would your sheet-iron workers get a living? Moreover, it was contended that, although tin plates were not made in this country now, they might be made here some time if the tax were retained, and especially if it were increased, as it ought to be. In answer to the argument that 60,000,000 consumers of tinware had some rights, it was stated by Mr. Butterworth that the consumers would never derive any benefit from the repeal of the duty, because it would all be absorbed by the middlemen—as though the middlemen were not American citizens, but some kind of "blarsted foreigners." Mr. Randall was very severe on the Standard Oil Company as a large consumer of tin plate, and seemed to think that it ought to be severely mulcted, forgetful, for once, of the fact that the money made by rich corporations descends in a grateful shower on their workingmen. The Standard Oil Company furnishes employment to more workmen than all the steel-rail mills in the country—and much steadier employment, we may add. Why these workmen should be singled out by Mr. Randall for punishment we are at a loss to understand. Although we have no tin-plate workers in this country, England has 50,000 such, and this fact was a great grievance to Mr. Joseph D. Taylor, who said: "We are feeding and clothing this great army of men under the British flag." It was Mr. Taylor's idea either that these English tin-plate workers were supported at our expense, giving us nothing in return, or that they were giving us tin plates gratis, and asking nothing from us in return; for if we pay for the tin plates, we pay with the products of our labor, and consequently as full employment is furnished to the workmen who supply these products as would be furnished if they were making tin plates.

There used to be a good deal of discussion of the question whether or not Mr. Cleveland was stronger than his party, but it appears to be decided in the affirmative by the testimony of Republicans as well as Democrats. "It would seem now that almost any Democrat might be elected President," says the Richmond *Dispatch*, a leading Democratic paper of Virginia; "but if we had taken the risk of nominating any other man than Cleveland, we should probably learn that he is, as has often been said, stronger than his party." The Atlanta *Constitution*, the leading Democratic paper of Georgia, is equally frank. "It is Cleveland that is stronger than party or platform," says the *Constitution*, adding that he is "the sturdiest and safest and best leader either party has had since Abraham Lincoln led the Republican party to its first victory." Republican testimony to the same effect is also forthcoming. "Mr. Cleveland is stronger than his party," says Mr. A. W. Tenney, ex-District Attorney and a prominent Republican politician in this State, "and the Republicans must match him with a candidate stronger than his party, or they are beaten."

The brief press despatch which last week announced the appointment of three postmasters in New York State by the President was not likely to arrest attention or attract remark, and yet it was not without significance. It means that well along in the fourth year of a Democratic President there are still Republican postmasters in important offices, who have served out under a President of the opposite party the greater part of the term for which they were appointed by a Republican President. It is a thing unknown before, since the spoils system was introduced by Jackson, for lucrative offices to be left by an incoming administration in the hands of men politically opposed to it for one, two, and even three years; but this is what has happened under Cleveland in the cases of three-fourths of the Presidential post-offices, which, as everybody knows, are the most important and desirable ones. The serious lapses of the Administration in the matter of civil-service reform during the last six months must not obscure the honorable record which Mr. Cleveland made by refusing to allow a "clean sweep," and by permitting a large proportion of the Federal officers with a four years' term to serve out that term.

There is a visible anxiety among the Republican managers in this State for the President's friends to make the mistake of acquiescing in Gov. Hill's desire for a renomination. They are all declaring that a "deal" has been arranged between the President and the Governor, the condition of which is that the latter shall be renominated. It is extremely doubtful if there is any basis for these reports. The President's friends in the Democratic party of this State are shrewd enough to see that Hill's candidacy this year would be a serious handicap for Cleveland to carry. The dislike of Hill is not only hearty and unanimous among the Independents, but it prevails largely among Democrats, the respectable portion of whom are disgusted with his trickery and "peanut politics." He would be an extremely weak candidate, also, because of the open antagonism of the labor parties, all factions of which are bitterly incensed against him for his veto of the Ballot-Reform Bill. If he were to run, and there were danger of his defeat, he would not hesitate for a moment to attempt a "deal" with the Republicans by which he could be elected at the expense of Cleveland.

The Chicago papers publish an interesting correspondence between Senator Edmunds and Mr. Melville W. Fuller, the President's nominee for Chief Justice. Under date of June 11 Mr. Edmunds wrote Mr. Fuller that he had been charged, in a communication filed with the Judiciary Committee, "the name of the writer of which the Senate rules forbid us to disclose," with having been instrumental in obtaining from the Board of the West Side Park Commissioners of

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Chicago $103,000 for land worth but $30,000, and taking for himself or a clerk in his office $5,000 or $10,000 of the amount, and with having requested Mr. King, one of the attorneys in the case, to suppress or leave out part of a record. Mr. Edmunds informed Mr. Fuller that "any statement he had to make in reference to the matter the Committee would be glad to receive." Under date of June 13 Mr. Fuller wrote Mr. Edmunds as follows: "While assuring the Committee that I intend no disrepect to them, I cannot consent to reply to anonymous aspersions of the character referred to in yours of the 11th. With your permission, I will publish your letter, with this reply." Under date of June 14 Mr. Edmunds answered: "Unable to consult Committee, but think you can, so far as the Committee is concerned, do what you think proper." Under date of June 15 Mr. Fuller replied: "Thank you. In my judgment publication will dispose of these fabrications without subjecting me to the humiliation of having to notice them." So it proved. Judge Loomis of the United States Court, before whom the condemnation proceedings were held, promptly declared "that there is not a particle of truth in the charge," citing numerous facts to prove that Mr. Fuller's part in the transaction was that of a high-toned gentleman and attorney. Mr. King, referred to by the anonymous enemy of Mr. Fuller, said: "The statement is absolutely and unqualifiedly false. Mr. Fuller is incapable of such conduct, and I have written to Senator Edmunds my denial of the statement, in answer to a communication from him." Mr. Fuller's dignified treatment of the matter will do much to strengthen the impression that he is worthy of the office for which he has been nominated.

The passage by the Senate of the resolution authorizing the President to enter into negotiations with all foreign Powers to provide for the settlement of international disputes by arbitration, is the most civilizing expression of any public body in this country since the abolition of slavery. The resolution seems to have been passed with substantial unanimity, but a reconsideration was moved by Mr. Riddleberger on the ground that it would settle the fisheries dispute without more ado, and in a sense contrary to the recent report of the Committee on Foreign Relations. That it would settle the fisheries dispute is unquestionable, and this is one of its great merits. That it would settle that dispute on fair terms is undoubted, because they would be terms upon which impartial judges should agree. But, on the other hand, the country would be relieved of any apprehensions growing out of the rejection of the treaty, and this would be a fair compensation for any trifling inconsistency in the action of the majority of the Senate.

Since writing last week on the "*Bridgewater* Case" we have received a copy of the *Free Press* of Ottawa, Canada, together with other information which leads us to think that the owner of the American ship *Bridgewater* has a just claim against the Dominion Government. We stated, upon information that we considered trustworthy, that Mr. Allen, the agent of the *Bridgewater*, was asked to deposit the money claimed for duties on the ship when she was offered for sale, and to receive it back when the repairs should be completed and the ship should take her departure. A copy of the alleged offer to refund the deposit, if it should be made, is before us. In it the acting Commissioner of Customs of the Dominion Government says:

> "I beg to call your attention to the option which was given to the owner in this case by this Department to pay the duty, and so comply with the strict requirements of the law, with the understanding that, when the vessel was fully repaired and taken out of the Dominion, an application would be received and considered for a return to such owner of the whole of such duty, or such part thereof as might be considered equitable under the circumstances."

This is not an agreement to return the money, but is an offer either to return it or to keep it, either in whole or in part, and of course could not be accepted by a person who denied that any duty was payable under the Canadian law or under international law. That no duty was payable is sufficiently evidenced by the fact that the *Bridgewater* was eventually released unconditionally. The Ottawa *Free Press* is clear in the opinion that no British Minister will justify the detention of the *Bridgewater*, and that consequently the owner is entitled to compensation as for unjust seizure of his property. The case has nothing to do with the fisheries, but as it comes up while the fisheries dispute is under debate, it is likely to create a prejudice against the treaty.

Unusual interest is lent to the canvass in Maine by the action of the Republican Convention. Two years ago the Republicans nominated and elected a millionaire named Bodwell, who would undoubtedly have been renominated this year, according to Republican custom, if he had lived. His death, after a few months' service, promoted the President of the Senate, Mr. Marble, a man of excellent character and high standing, who was as much entitled to a second term as Mr. Bodwell would have been. But he was repugnant to the Machine, which is run by Joe Manley, and State Treasurer Burleigh was picked out as the ring candidate and forced upon the party, despite the fact that the State Constitution requires the Treasurer's accounts to be examined by the incoming Governor, and thus, in spirit if not in letter, debars the Treasurer from becoming Governor.

The result is the development of a strong Mugwump sentiment. Even before the Convention met, it was openly stated that a number of Republicans would vote for the Democratic candidate if the Machine should carry through its programme, and the revolt seems likely to gain strength. The Waterville *Mail*, a Republican paper, publishes a striking letter from a representative of these Independent voters. After saying that no sufficient reason had been given for refusing the usual courtesy of a second term to the present incumbent of the Governorship, the letter says: "We have seen nothing but insult to our judgment and freedom in the zeal of party managers to herd us with the supporters of their candidate. We have seen neither propriety nor decency in the use of all the party machinery that the leading Republican organizer of the State can control, to force us into acceptance of a nominee with whom he calculates to be the power behind the throne. We have seen nothing but disgrace to our party in sneak-thievery of caucuses by the managers of the party." The *Mail's* correspondent predicts that the dissatisfaction of self-respecting Republicans with the Manley performance "will voice itself so that it will be understood," and says: "There are a great many men in Maine who never voted anything but a Republican ticket in their lives, who are now debating the question whether they will submit to the dictation of a State convention which does not seem to them honestly representative of the rank and file of the party. Some of us, who have not even been classed as Mugwumps—except when the party whippers-in have wanted to remind us that an opinion of our own is a violation of discipline—would not regard a vote for Hon. William L. Putnam as the most roundabout way of bringing our Republican managers to their senses." That there is danger of this threat being carried out and proving effective, appears clear from the warning words of the Portland *Press*, a Republican paper of prominence, which protested against the nomination of Mr. Burleigh.

The Emperor Frederick III. expired at Potsdam at eleven o'clock on Friday, after a reign of three months and six days. His long sufferings, his patient bearing, his steadfastness to duty, and his truly heroic mould have drawn the whole civilized world as watchers at his bedside during more than a year, while an incurable disease was making its way to the seat of life. He died, as he had lived, a brave, upright man, performing his duties to the last, earning the love of his subjects with his latest breath, and leaving to his country and his children the priceless legacy of a lofty character in all the great stations to which he was called. As a soldier he had won a great renown in the crisis at Sadowa, and in other fields in the greater war which followed after Sadowa. Yet he so abhorred bloodshed that his accession to the throne was heralded in all the capitals of Europe as a guarantee of continued peace. Of the successor into whose hands the sceptre of the greatest Power of Europe now passes, little is known, but it is known that Bismarck is still the Chief of Germany, and that no government will be possible without him so long as life and bodily vigor are spared to him. But he is now past seventy, and infirmities are advancing upon the man of blood and iron.

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FREE WOOL AND FOREIGN COMMERCE.

THE direct interest of the consumers and manufacturers of woollen goods in the proposition to place wool on the free list has been pretty fully set forth; our immense indirect interest in the effect of such a measure upon our general foreign trade deserves more attention than has been given it. We invite attention to a part of that effect, such as may reasonably be anticipated in our South American commerce.

One reason for testing the matter there is, that Chili and the Argentine Republic are among the leading wool-exporting countries. A stronger reason is, that we have the highest and most sacred Republican and protectionist authority for maintaining, first, that an extension of our South American trade is highly desirable; and, secondly, that our tariff on wool is the greatest obstacle to that extension. The Commission appointed by President Arthur under the act of July 7, 1884, had for its duty "to ascertain and report upon the best modes of securing more intimate commercial relations between the United States and the several countries of Central and South America." In his instructions to the Commissioners, Secretary Frelinghuysen directed them to endeavor to negotiate reciprocity treaties as "the means of inaugurating this advanced step in our national policy." But not a single treaty was forthcoming. In every case the Commissioners ran against the dead wall of our high tariff. In their final report they admit their entire failure, and give the reason for it in the words: "In any convention we, on our part, must admit wool or sugar free of duty or at greatly reduced rates. They are the peculiar products of those countries, . . . and are precisely the two we felt we had no authority to even consider in our negotiations." More specifically, in the report on the Argentine Republic, it was said that until we were ready to admit wool free there was no use in discussing a reciprocity treaty with that country.

The Commission certainly reported ample testimony to bear out their conclusion. Take the following bit from the statement of an American resident in Chili, Dr. J. H. Trumbull, for twenty-eight years a practising physician in that country:

> Q. What has been your observation as regards American trade here? A. Since I arrived it has grown beautifully less.
>
> Q. What is the cause? A. I think it is the want of a return cargo from here. There is a desire on the part of merchants and everybody to bring American goods here, but there is no way of paying for them. You have clapped, some years ago, a duty on copper and wool, and the consequence was that the vessels that came here—Hemenway's, Fitzgerald's, etc., from Boston and Baltimore—had to give up this trade. Everybody wants to import American goods. All the people say, "Why can't we go back fifteen or sixteen years ago, when we could have those American goods?"
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> Q. You have only wool that we can take? A. That is all. You undersell us in copper; the hides are all used here.
>
> Q. Can our Government do anything except to modify the tariff? A. No, sir.
>
> Q. How would it be to establish a direct line of steamers? A. Hemenway tried it. It was a failure.

And Mr. Edward A. Hopkins, for forty years a resident of the Plate Valley, in the midst of his rather hysterical calls for subsidies and the restoration of the duty on coffee, makes it clear that the real trouble with our trade with the Argentine Republic is our tariff on wool. In his recent address before the Chamber of Commerce in this city, he asked only for a revision of the duty, asserting that the result would be "a jubilee of enthusiasm manifested towards us throughout the whole Argentine land," and that "our commerce would at once increase almost fabulously." He had just before remarked: "If Congress declare for free wool, which is not to be supposed, we have nothing more to say on this account." We should think not, for if a simple revision would make a "jubilee," no language would be left to describe the effect of making wool entirely free.

The Argentine Republic exported in 1885 283,047,000 pounds of wool, of which we took 10,222,817 pounds, or about one-twenty-eighth. Very strikingly, though naturally, our entire trade with the Argentine Republic last year was just about one-twenty-eighth of the total foreign commerce of that country, or a little less than 4 per cent. In 1860 we had a much larger proportion, about 8 per cent. If we had only held our own all these years, we should have had a trade with the Plate River of more than $17,000,000 in 1887. If we had shared in the foreign trade of Chili in 1886 in the same proportion as in 1860, the amount would have been $10,000,000 instead of the $4,930,000 it actually was. On the simple basis, thus, of twenty-eight years ago our glutted markets would have been eased last year of at least $8,000,000 worth of products, if only we had been in a position to take the pay Chili and the Argentines offer us. And it ought not to be a question of our trade merely holding its own. Every one knows that, if we had not deliberately shut ourselves out of the South American markets, our old proportion would have become greatly enlarged. England's trade with the Argentine Republic has increased as much as 46 per cent. in a single year. So might ours if, with our commanding lead of thirty years ago, we had kept on as an active competitor in the market, willing to buy as well as sell. So that, in estimating the loss we have brought upon ourselves in the restriction upon our foreign trade by our wool tariff, we are justified, in the case of the two countries mentioned, in speaking of the possibility of added exports not to the amount of $8,000,000 merely, but of vastly more.

As we said at the beginning, this line of argument is originally and legitimately protectionist and Republican. And it should be remembered that the effort to push our trade in South America—an effort that means, if it means anything, lowered or abolished duties—still has the highest Republican sanction. When the McCreary bill for calling a Pan-American Congress was before the House, our readers will recall that a man so near the fount of pure and undefiled protection as Mr. William Walter Phelps appealed to the great name of Blaine in support of the measure. But that also looks to reciprocity treaties, and a reciprocity treaty means, as we have seen, free wool. At least, we hope that none of our delegates to the Congress will mention a reciprocity treaty unless they also mention free wool, for it would not be pleasant to have a Chilian say in Washington what one said in Valparaiso: "The United States Government has by means of its heavy tariff pretended to realize the impossible, or the absurdity of selling to all the world without buying anything from anybody."

NEEDFUL AMENDMENTS OF THE CHACE BILL.

THE *Publishers' Weekly* for June 2 prints, among other interesting copyright matter, the Revised Statutes relating to copyrights, as amended by the Senate act of May 9. This publication (for which Mr. Solberg, the Secretary of the International Copyright Association of Washington, is responsible) enables any one interested in the subject to discover for himself the real bearing of the alterations proposed in the present law by the "Chace" bill. Wherever any portion of the original law has been struck out, the place of omission is noted, and the displaced words are printed in foot-notes, while the new text is given in its proper place and distinguished by the use of italic type. We have frequently and at length commented upon the various provisions of the Copyright Bill, and the effect they would have upon the law now in force, and only wish at this time to point out certain discrepancies which become noticeable when the old and new texts are thus brought into juxtaposition. The conflicting provisions to which we refer are in no wise accessory to the chief purpose of the bill, viz., to secure an honest property protection for the works of foreign authors in this country; and as they are certain to cause confusion, leading to vexatious litigation, and to occasion unintentional injustice, there is every reason why the text of the act should be corrected by the House of Representatives before it finally becomes law.

In the rewording of section 4956 of the Revised Statutes, the stipulation that the author must "within ten days from the publication thereof deliver at the office of the Librarian of Congress, or deposit in the mail addressed to the Librarian of Congress at Washington, District of Columbia, two copies of such copyright book or other article," was changed to require that the deposit shall be made "*not later than the day of publication thereof* in this or any foreign country," and that this deposit shall consist of "two copies of such copyright book or dramatic composition printed from type set within the limits of the United States." But section 4959 of the Revised Statutes contains a repetition of the stipulation as to the deposit of copies of a copyrighted book, to the effect that "*within ten days after its publication* two complete printed copies thereof, of the *best edition issued*," shall be delivered to the Librarian of Congress, or deposited in the mail addressed to that officer. This second requirement of the deposit of copies in the same sta-

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tute is unnecessary, but its appearance there is readily accounted for. The previous copyright legislation had required the deposit of two copies of every book copyrighted; one copy each in two different places, within different periods of time. The Commissioners appointed to revise the statutes amended the law by changing both clauses relating to the deposit of books, so that each uniformly required that two copies should be sent to one and the same place, within the same period of time; and in the draft of the revision, printed in 1872, they recommended that the superfluous stipulation contained in section 4959 should be omitted. Why their suggestion was not acted upon at that time it is difficult to know, but it is even more difficult to understand why this provision should be allowed to remain now, when not only is it equally useless, but when, furthermore, it conflicts with the new stipulation of the "Chace" bill, not only as to the time of deposit, but also as to the edition to be deposited—for it by no means follows that the copies "printed from type set within the limits of the United States" are of the "best edition issued." Section 4959, therefore, should be amended so as to relate only to the deposit of a copy of a revised edition of any book previously copyrighted.

Section 4956, as amended by the "Chace" bill, contains the following clause: "In the case of books in foreign languages, *of which only translations in English are copyrighted*, the prohibition of importation shall apply only to the translation of the same, and the importation of the books in the original language shall be permitted." The words which we have italicized would seem to indicate that the intention was to extend copyright security to an author's translation of his work when the original was in a language which would preclude its circulation in the United States. This would be just to the foreign author, and would give him a proper stimulus to prepare an edition of his book for the benefit of American readers. But section 4952 is amended by the insertion in the "Chace" bill—in lieu of a simple reservation to authors of the right to dramatize or to translate their own works—of these words: "Authors or their assigns shall have the exclusive right to dramatize or translate any of their works *for which copyright shall have been obtained under the laws of the United States.*" The practical result of this paragraph will be to destroy entirely the value of the clause in section 4956 quoted above for any foreign author who has not obtained an American copyright for his original work; and it would seem, furthermore, practically to offer a premium upon the piracy of a foreign book by translation, inasmuch as such translation would be given the copyright monopoly of an original work, and this would carry with it (according to section 4956) the prohibition of the importation of a subsequent translation published abroad *with the author's sanction*. Surely this effect cannot have been contemplated, because it not only is a manifest injustice to the foreign author, but involves a possible serious injury to the American reader, for it is easily seen that inadequate translations will be hastily prepared for the sake of being the first to secure copyright; and, once copyrighted, no matter how indifferent such translations may be, the American reader will be obliged to content himself with them, although better ones are published abroad.

THE DISLIKE OF FARMING.

A MOVEMENT has been started lately in London, under the impulse of some Bostonians, and notably Mr. Joseph Cook, to induce Englishmen to come over and settle on the numerous deserted farms of Massachusetts and other New England States, many of which are now being taken up by Irishmen and Germans, but chiefly the former. We presume the effort, in so far as it originates on this side of the water, is due to a not unnatural desire to see the abandoned farms occupied by men of the same race and faith, and, if possible, the same standards of living as their old owners, or, in other words, to revive in the nineteenth century the emigration to New from Old England which began and ended in the seventeenth. It is hardly likely to have any perceptible success, however. The English farmer is not an emigrating man. He would not have gone to New England in the seventeenth century if he had not been driven by religious enthusiasm. Besides this, he can have to-day as much land as he wants in England, with all sorts of comforts and "improvements," for very little more than the labor of cultivating it. In other words, there are two landlords in pursuit of every farmer in England who is looking for a farm or would be at all likely to cross the sea in search of one. There are but few English farmers, too, prepared by nature or education for the life of a farmer in any part of New England. There is hardly any cultivator of the soil less fitted to struggle with the difficulties of a new country, or wring comfort from an unfruitful soil, than the English farmer. He has been so petted and taken care of by the landlords and Parliament that he has lost most of whatever courage and initiative he may once have had. When things go wrong and the landlord cannot help him, he is a very forlorn man. Why any one should suppose that he would be able to extract a comfortable living from soil which the hardworking, frugal, and ascetic Yankee has deserted in disgust or despair, we cannot imagine.

But, in addition to all this, it is a mistake to suppose that it is in New England only, or the United States only, that farm labor and life are becoming distasteful, and that all the younger generation brought up on farms are eager to quit them whenever any opportunity offers itself of getting into the great towns. The same tendency is visible in other countries in which railroads are numerous and the art of reading is widely diffused. In England, not only are farms lying vacant in great numbers, owing to the fall in agricultural prices, but the supply of farm labor is rapidly diminishing, in the teeth of a marked and steady advance in wages and greatly increased inducements in the shape of improved cottages. Mr. Kebbel, in the last edition of his well-known book on the 'Agricultural Laborer,' sums up the testimony he receives on this point from all parts of England by saying: "The rising generation of peasantry take no interest in agricultural work. In many villages the men who can cut a hedge, drain a field, or thatch a rick may be counted on the fingers of one hand, and they are old men. . . . The best boys from the schools all set their faces towards the town and scorn the plough. Those who remain get higher wages, but they neither know their work nor care to know." He declares, in fact, that there is "an exodus from the soil."

It must be remembered, too, that there has always been and still is in England a feeling of reverence for "the land" as a calling—that is, a feeling that a man who gets his living directly from the soil, whether by rent or labor, is somehow the social superior of the man who gets it by trade or by a handicraft. It is easy to see how this feeling arose in England, but there is nothing like it in any other country. A recent writer in one of the magazines, giving advice to the sons of impoverished landed gentry who think of emigrating to the United States or Canada, tells them that they must not expect to find that a farmer in these countries enjoys any more social consideration than the clerk or salesman or mechanic, or to find many, if any, farmers' sons who are not ready joyfully to exchange the hoe or the plough for the yardstick or high stool if they get a chance. The sentimental view of the land will probably die out gradually now that the landed interest has ceased to be a political power, and is no longer the wealthiest class in the community. On the farm laborers it has now no influence whatever. They flock eagerly into the towns in search of any employment they can pick up, especially on the police force and as porters at railroad stations. What rural England will be under these changed conditions it is hard to say, but the chances are that it will lose that exquisite finish which during the last two centuries has made it the wonder and admiration of foreigners of all lands. For it is a melancholy truth that to secure neat gardens, well-kept roads, parks, and demesnes, trim hedgerows, and clean fields, the love of order or an eye for beauty, or even a full purse, is not sufficient. Labor must be abundant, easily procured, cheap, and very manageable.

In France the very same movement of the agricultural population towards the towns has begun to excite serious alarm. A M. Baudrillart has been investigating the subject in fifteen of the departments, and these the richest and most prosperous, comprising the old provinces of Marne, Anjou, Touraine, Poitou, Flanders, Artois, Picardy, and the Île-de-France. He finds a positive diminution of population in all of them, it is true, but he also finds that the population of the towns increases. The young men, and especially the young women, will not live on the farms if they can help it. Agriculture offers greater inducements than ever in the shape of higher wages and better food and lodging, but these have little or no effect on the rising generation. This disinclination for farm life is,

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he thinks, to be accounted for in the same way as the small number of children to a marriage. "Moral progress," he says, "has not marched abreast with material progress." Everywhere the aspirations of the rural classes are out of proportion to their intelligence and resources. The rise of wages has created a crowd of more or less factitious wants, which are difficult to meet and which keep alive a constant sense of privation. Education has created in the farming man an intellectual curiosity which it is hard to satisfy, and which keeps him constantly in mind of his isolation, of the loneliness and dulness of his life. One effect of this state of things in France is the influx from Italy and Belgium of a very low grade of laborers, whom the farmers are only too glad to hire to prevent their fields from lying waste, but who are anything but a wholesome addition to the French population. In this country we are witnessing much the same phenomenon. Wherever we find the natives abandoning in disgust the cultivation of the soil, we find a lower grade of labor, a less civilized man, who asks for less both from nature and the State, coming in to take their place at the plough.

Everybody who writes on this subject of the growing distaste for agriculture in the highly civilized countries lays a great part of the blame on the purely literary education given by the common schools. Anything, in fact, better fitted than this education to create a dislike for manual labor, and a solitary and monotonous life, it would be hard to imagine. It turns the child's thoughts almost wholly towards sedentary pursuits, and to places in which men swarm. The world which reading opens to him, both through the newspapers and such books as he is likely to get hold of, is a world of gayety, of cities, and theatres, and amusements, and luxuries; a world in which the farmer is more or less a butt for ridicule, in which the happy people are those who make fortunes by strokes of wit, in which physical labor is rarely undertaken except for amusement, and in which all rise in the world is marked by increasing abstention from toil of every description. It is, in truth, an education which originated at the Renaissance for the benefit of priests and gentlemen, and never was intended to be popular. Whether we shall ever see children trained in schools for the life they are actually to lead, or whether any such education in schools is now possible, it would take a very wise and far-seeing man to say.

TECHNICAL EDUCATION IN FRANCE.

A WRITER in the *Nineteenth Century* observes that the French mind, at once logical and mobile, is always the first to catch and focus the influences which are slowly beginning to tell on neighboring states, and "its evolution possesses for us the unique interest of a glimpse into stages of development through which other national minds may also be destined ere long to pass." For this reason perhaps it is that our Consul at Tunstall, Mr. J. Schoenhof, has selected that country to constitute his first study with regard to Technical Education in Europe, the report of which to Secretary Bayard furnishes suggestive reading.

It is very satisfactory to find that the experience of other countries on this subject is to be looked into by so wise and thoughtful an observer, for Mr. Schoenhof's own observations and reflections on what he saw are by no means the least valuable part of the pamphlet. For instance, when he tells us that "a people's state of civilization can be measured best by what its *working* classes consider necessaries of life," we see that we are on the right track. He also sees clearly that it is "unreasonable to expect of one nation the same work and results as of another, as it would be useless to engraft upon one nation an exact copy of the methods of another because the latter have been found to bring out good results there." He knows that we must see a nation *at work* if we would understand it, and this is why we are profoundly interested, not so much in its finished results as in its daily activity, and the means which it uses to train up its future workmen. Because France felt that she was losing ground as against her neighbors in the technical arts, she has made great efforts to regain her superiority, and to that end has laid her basis for improvements broad and deep by using the public-school system as their instrument. With her characteristic clear-sightedness, she has done this; her rulers have distributed the elements of Technical Education upon a broader basis than Germany, Austria, Belgium, Holland, Switzerland, or England. It is for this reason that we may be repaid for a study of her ways of working.

The rapidity with which the French statesmen have increased their means of education may be gathered from the following statement:

> "To begin with 1830, the almost ludicrous sum of 116,000 francs was all the city of Paris could then find for educational purposes.
> "In 1840, under the Orleans Government, it had grown to 858,000 francs.
> "In 1869, the last year of Napoleon III., 6,192,000 francs were devoted to this subject. In 1871, immediately after the Franco-Prussian war, it had grown to 7,241,000 francs; in 1875, to 10,300,000 francs; in 1878, to 12,650,000 francs; in 1881, to 17,633,000 francs, and now to the *net* sum of 23,500,000 francs, after deducting the extra receipts and the outlay for building purposes."

Ten per cent. of the whole expenditure of the city of Paris is devoted to educational purposes. The city expends now for this purpose the same amount that New York city does, viz., $6,000,000, and it expends it on the education of 200,000 children, about the same number as that of this city, where the average attendance for last year was 155,000, though the total attendance was 306,000. In all France, the sum used for educational purposes was $60,000,000, the special schools for war and commerce, however, not being provided for under this sum. One very keen observation of Mr. Schoenhof is that the "inefficiency of the private schools, which the children of the so-called better classes attend, and the efficiency of the public schools, to which the children of the poorer classes flock, cannot fail to exert in time a powerful influence upon the constitution of French society." Another suggestive fact is, that the Socialists in France "make captious opposition to the workshop practice in the schools, though the working classes take well to it, the Socialists opposing everything which tends to increase the ability of the workingman, in the erroneous belief that by the degree of efficiency attained by individual workingmen their standard will be raised and the opportunity of their fellow-workingmen for finding employment correspondingly lowered." How short-sighted and false such an opinion is, is shown conclusively by the statistics given in Mr. Schoenhof's introductory letter to Secretary Bayard, where we see how illusory is the old standard of day wages used by writers on political economy. Although the same kind of machinery is used in different countries, we find that "the day earnings of the operatives (weavers) vary so much between one country and another that weavers in Switzerland earn but 2¼ to 2½ francs (44 to 49 cents), in Germany on an average 2 marks (48 cents), in French mills 2¾ to 3 francs (53 to 58 cents), with a working day from five o'clock in the morning to half-past seven in the evening, and 2½ hours of rest in the day; in England about 65 cents, with nine working hours, and in America from 80 cents to $1.12½ a day of ten working hours (average 85 cents, taken from the work account of a mill). If all things were equal, if with the same machines and working agencies the results of a day's work per hand employed were the same, of course the countries where the higher earnings prevail would be in a hopeless condition in competing with the others. But the reverse is the truth. In fact, the cheapness of the labor product stands in an inverse ratio to the weekly earnings of the operative."

This last statement points to more potent causes for difference in day wages, and hence in the comfort of the workman, than those generally put forward. Why do the same number of spindles in a cotton-mill in Bombay put out only one-half as much yarn as in Massachusetts? Another factor which we cannot afford to disregard in cost and prices of manufactured articles is the methods of distribution. We discover that "high earnings can be obtained only by great quickness, deftness, and uninterrupted attention and application, qualities which again can be supplied by none but the best conditioned labor, enjoying the highest standard of living." That the average weekly earnings of a workman at Waterbury, Conn., are $10.71, four times as high as in the Black Forest or Switzerland, while the Waterbury watches can be sold at an almost incredibly low price, shows the value in an economic point of view of excellent machinery, and skill, and great quickness of labor. Again, the chief value of an article often depends on artistic design, and here the value of technical schools becomes at once apparent. An interesting observation is that of the director of one of the apprentice schools to the effect "that the best pieces coming under his observation were those made by workingmen who still worked on the old method, that is to say, making every part of the work themselves without the help of labor-saving automatic machinery." Another

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gives us a fact not less instructive. He says: "It has often happened that I have received apparatus, apparently perfect, made by an expert, but having one small defect: it would not do. Well, sirs, in most cases, the cause was simple, but unknown to the man who brought me the instrument. He knew how to work, but he did not know for what his work was intended." Mr. Schoenhof goes on:

"Fortunately self-interest begins to see the drift, and to understand that ignorant, or, what is synonymous, cheap labor, is as incompatible with maintaining position in competition as the old methods in transportation against the railroad and steamship. Recognizing the force of this axiom, France was quick in adapting its school system to the demands of a new epoch in the history of man. The elements of knowledge and the elements of workmanship which the public schools place within the reach of everybody, prepare the aspiring pupil for the highest branches of technical education put at his disposal by the liberal care of the State. Through the means for extending technical education in both directions, production is well taken care of."

This calls attention to one very important fact, that in the public schools the aim is not so much to train to one special trade as to give general power. How this is sought to be attained in the training of the young for the practical arts of life, in the French Republic, is fully shown in Mr. Schoenhof's report.

THE INDIAN GOVERNMENT AND THE STATE OF THIBET.

LONDON, May 2, 1888.

THE Indian Government has become involved in a difficulty with the State of Thibet which, unless treated with the utmost patience and gentleness, may easily grow into an issue of a truly formidable character. It has, thus far, attracted so little attention in England that in the United States it, not improbably, may have escaped observation altogether. But that is generally the way with our Indian troubles. They start from such very small beginnings as to elude observation during the stages of their growth, when they could be successfully encountered, and only then succeed in attracting public attention when the possibility of a peaceful solution is passing away. So does it threaten to be in this matter with Thibet.

Our Indian Empire, as I have pointed out in previous letters, is walled off from the rest of Asia by the stupendous barrier of the Himalaya Mountains. We are indebted for this isolation to the rapidity and comparative ease with which we overran the country and consolidated our power therein. The mountain barrier, also, marks the limit where the profitable occupation of the country ceases. A double reason, therefore, ought to have restrained us from all action which tended, however remotely, to encroach upon the line of fortifications which Nature herself would seem to have thrown up for the protection of India. The one reason was that it is impossible to extend our frontier beyond the Himalayas without aligning it with that of China on the northeast, and Asiatic Russia on the northwest. The other reason was, perhaps, even stronger: as the revenues of these mountain-lands could not nearly repay the costs of their occupation, every such extension of territory involved the imposition of additional taxation on our Indian subjects, and, *pro tanto*, tended to destroy their loyalty to a rule which claimed their allegiance mainly on the ground that its taxation was light, and that it added largely to the wealth of the country.

Regardless, however, of either consideration, the Indian Government has, for more than half a century, been busily engaged in piercing the Himalaya Mountains—now at one point, now at another; and has persisted in this policy in the face of the plainest evidence of its disastrous character, politically as well as financially. Our relations with Afghanistan constitute the part of this policy that is best known to the world, but even here its financial and political consequences to India are very inadequately appreciated. Financially, we have expended about a hundred millions of the wealth of India, and increased the annual cost of our Indian army from twelve to close upon twenty millions, with the result that we have established ourselves in a single corner of Afghanistan which will become immediately untenable if the Russians in Asia occupy Herat, which they can do whenever they choose. That the Indian Government is well aware that our position in Afghanistan is untenable in the event of a Russian advance, is shown by its taking part in the demarcation of the frontier dividing Afghanistan from Asiatic Russia—an act without meaning unless it had resolved to regard the violation of this frontier as a *casus belli*. As it is absolutely certain that, in the event of a disagreement with Great Britain in Europe, Russia will not respect this frontier, but will occupy Herat and all the country lying between the Oxus and the Hindu-Kush, the expenses already borne by India, in order to obtain a footing in Afghanistan, are as nothing compared with those which are impending in a not distant future, when, as a consequence of its present policy, the Indian Government will be compelled permanently to occupy both Kandahar and Kabul.

Now, just as the deserts and hills of Afghanistan divided India from Asiatic Russia on the northwest, so the territory of Burmah divided India from China on the northeast. This barrier, also, the Indian Government has deliberately thrown down, and the results to India, financially and politically, threaten to be only less disastrous than most which have ensued upon its policy in Afghanistan. Upper Burmah shows no signs of quieting down. On the contrary, at no time since our occupation have the "dacoits," as they are called, exhibited greater activity, or the attacks upon our posts been of so determined a character. The fact is, the conquest of Upper Burmah was undertaken in total ignorance of the peculiar difficulties attaching to the enterprise. Even in Afghanistan there are several centres of population, such as Kandahar, Ghuzni, Kabul, Jelalabad, the occupation of which gives an invading force the command of the districts from whence they draw their supplies. But there is literally only one city in Upper Burmah—Mandalay—which has always been fed from British Burmah. All the rest of the country, so far as it is peopled at all, consists of little hamlets, self-supporting, and divided from one another by great tracts of all but impenetrable forest. Until this forest has been cleared, the rivers bridged, and roads opened up in every direction, to establish a government or get any real hold of the country is a physical impossibility. Meanwhile, no revenue can be collected; the country remains, indeed, in a chronic state of semi-famine, as the peaceable population have in large numbers abandoned their villages and flocked into Mandalay and other military centres, where they have to be fed by the State. We have (inclusive of military police) about forty thousand troops scattered in small detachments through the province, and the heavy cost of keeping up this large force falls exclusively on the Indian Exchequer.

Such, so far, have been the financial effects of the conquest of Upper Burmah. Politically its consequences threaten to be no less serious. In the hills which divide Burmah from China and Siam dwell a number of wild tribes—Chins, Kakhyens, Shans, and others—all of which profess a certain allegiance to the Emperor of China. They constantly raid into the defenceless Burmese villages from their mountain fastnesses, but as yet these proceedings have received neither the sanction nor the assistance of the Chinese Government. If that sanction were given, if the Chinese Government allowed its officials in Yunnan to distribute rifles and ammunition among these tribes, then our difficulties in Upper Burmah would be aggravated ten-fold, and, though we doubled our army of occupation, we should be unable to give protection to our subjects, or to follow the raiders into their own country. It is at this moment, when a state of cordial amity with China is a matter of vital importance, that the Indian Government has drifted into a difficulty with Thibet which places that amity in extreme peril.

Thibet, as every one knows, is regarded as sacred territory by the Mongolians and other Buddhist subjects under the sway of the Chinese Emperor. It would in all probability cost the Emperor his throne if he tamely acquiesced in the occupation of the capital, Lassa, by a foreign force, and the whole strength of the empire would be put into the field in order to avert the contingency of its permanent detachment from China. So long ago as the time of Warren Hastings, the Indian Government made an attempt to establish commercial relations with Thibet; and these attempts were renewed a little later on. They led to no result, and the rapidity with which the British overran and conquered India has strengthened the Thibetans in their resolve not to allow us, under any pretext whatsoever, to get a footing on their soil. There is no reason why we should desire to do so. Thibet is, perhaps, the poorest country in the world, inhabited by a scanty and stationary population, and incapable of supporting a larger. At the same time, ever since we conquered Bengal, there have been commercial dealings between British India and Thibet. This commerce, on the Thibetan side, has been carried on by a colony of Cashmeree Moslems which has been settled at Lassa for a great many years, and is in high consideration there, and the route followed by them has been through the independent State of Nepal into India. Had we been content to allow matters to continue on this footing, our present difficulties would never have occurred. Unluckily, British merchants, especially during periods of commercial depression, are unceasing in their endeavors to discover new markets for British commodities; and a few years ago, when Lord Randolph Churchill was at the India Office, mercantile influence persuaded him that an effort ought to be made to bring the Thibetan trade down to Calcutta by a directer route than through Nepal. It was represented to him that this commerce was heavily crippled by transit duties levied by the Nepalese Government, whereas, by making a new channel for it through the small hill-state of Sikkim, which was under our protection, not only would these transit duties be evaded, but the distance between Lassa and British territory would be greatly shortened. The Government in Calcutta was alive to the political danger of this proceeding, but Lord Randolph overruled its objections, and insisted upon the organizing of

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a mission, upon a formidable scale, which was to make its way to Lassa for the purpose of executing a commercial treaty with the Thibetan authorities there.

Great was the consternation in Lassa when this intention became known. That consternation increased as the magnitude of the mission went on increasing. It is likely that the reports of this magnitude gave to the mission the dimensions of an invading army before it reached Lassa. The fate which they had so long dreaded and striven to avoid seemed to be coming on them at last. Their fears were not diminished by the accounts which the Cashmere colony gave of the habitual policy of the English in India. Commercial missions, according to these experienced observers, were, with these insidious people, the invariable preludes to armies of invasion and forcible occupation of a country. Meanwhile, however, a British force had marched to Mandalay, deposed King Theebaw, and annexed his territory. Now, the sovereign of Upper Burmah stood in some vague position of subordination to the Emperor of China. It was the custom, at intervals of ten years, and on the accession of a new King, to send presents to Peking, thus, in fact, acknowledging the suzerainty of the Chinese Emperor. If such tribute was withheld, it was in the power of the Chinese Government to liberate the Burmese people from the duty of allegiance to their nominal sovereign. After our annexation of Upper Burmah, the Chinese Government consented to recognize the validity of British rule, on the condition that we abandoned our intention of sending a commercial mission to Thibet. We accepted this condition, the mission was broken up, and there seemed to be an end of the incident.

It was not so, however. The road, or what in those wild latitudes passes for a road, from Thibet into Sikkim enters the latter State through the archway of a fort which has been built for its protection; and, presumably with the view to be beforehand with the Indian Government in case it should revert to its abandoned policy, the Thibetans placed a garrison in this fort. Now, the fort is within the Sikkim frontier, and Sikkim is under our protection. The Thibetans, therefore, could not be allowed to remain upon soil which was not their own. At the same time, unless we were ourselves to establish a garrison in the fort, it was difficult to see how they could be kept out of it. Now, the fort is 300 miles distant from the nearest British cantonment. It stands at an elevation of 14,000 feet above the level of the sea, and, from the beginning of October to the end of May, the garrison would have to live in a climate of frightful severity, and entirely cut off from British India. In fact, the fort could not be garrisoned. Application, accordingly, was made to the Chinese Government to use its influence to persuade the Thibetan Government to withdraw from what was virtually British territory. The Chinese Government tried and failed. The Thibetans declined to retire, and, at length Lord Dufferin had no alternative but to send a force of 3,000 men to drive them out. After a toilsome and difficult march, this force reached the Sikkim frontier, and, as soon as it appeared, the Thibetans fled. They remain, however, just within their own frontier. They refuse to listen to any terms of agreement. It is certain that as soon as our troops are withdrawn they will again take possession of the fort. What are we to do? The British troops, even if they desired to do so, have neither the carriage nor the supplies necessary to follow the Thibetans far into their own country. In three weeks at the furthest, the monsoon will break over the Himalaya Mountains, when it will be impossible for them to remain under canvas. The fort, therefore, until next spring, will have to be left in the possession of the Thibetans.

But even then it is difficult to see what the Indian Government is to do. It cannot send 3,000 men every summer to this distant point in order to drive out the Thibetans, allowing them to reoccupy the fort as soon as the bad weather sets in. A march in force to Lassa, on the other hand, would be an operation to which the march to Kandahar was mere child's play, and, indeed, could not be attempted without provoking the Chinese Government to acts of retaliation in Upper Burmah which would make our position there supremely difficult and ruinously costly. The Indian Government is on the horns of a most painful dilemma. If it yields to the Thibetans, it risks a loss of prestige which may have a most damaging influence on its authority in India. If it determines to coerce them into submission, it plunges into a regular jungle of difficulties, financial and political, the issue of which is beyond the reach of human conjecture.

ROBERT D. OSBORN, Lieut.-Colonel.

THE GOETHE SOCIETY IN WEIMAR.

WEIMAR, May 28, 1888.

IN April, 1885, died the last of the Goethes. The archives passed unconditionally into the hands of the Grand Duchess of Saxe-Weimar. Her Royal Highness, conscious of the wide responsibility which the legacy entailed, summoned about her the leading representatives of the "Goethe Wissenschaft," and under her protectorate the society was founded. Fifteen years ago the expression "Goethe Wissenschaft" would have been found, to say the least, novel. Those engaged in the special study of Goethe were moved by an intense dilettante enthusiasm, but had, for the most part, no connection with the University. There was at that time in the capital city of the new empire no professorship of modern German literature. Herman Grimm, who had won his fame as the biographer of Michael Angelo and as a graceful essayist, occasioned something like a sensation when, in 1874–5, he delivered a series of lectures at the University of Berlin on the life and times of Goethe. Besides furnishing the worthiest life of Goethe that has yet appeared, these lectures accomplished further that a chair of modern German literature came to be regarded as a necessity, and Wilhelm Scherer was called to create the new department. Such a professorship is now held to be of supreme importance. Thus the opening of the Goethe archives finds a well-developed Goethe Wissenschaft ready to use and edit the treasures; the study of German literature enters herewith upon a new era; from Weimar, as of old, a steady influence has begun to go out, and thitherward many pilgrims turn their steps yearly in the week of Whitsuntide.

That the success of the undertaking is thus by the experience of three years assured, was the conviction of all who were present at this third annual meeting. A buoyant spirit was abroad, which only those can have whom indubitable success is spurring on to continued effort. One had the feeling that all went well. Moreover, there is a witchery about Weimar itself that gives to these annual meetings an especial worth and charm. The beautiful park has been called a poem of Goethe's, and to each of us it seems to belong, with the same right that his poems belong to all who can read them. The sepulchre where the poet princes lie by the side of the princes of the house of Weimar, has become a pilgrimage chapel. The Goethe House is a National Museum. A half-sad romantic interest attaches to the pleasant rooms of the Frau von Stein, where something of the ideal spirit of an *Iphigenie* has left its impress, which the scornful wit of the cynical can never quite erase. With a certain merry poem of Goethe's in mind, one visits the grand-ducal castles on the wooded heights about Weimar; Tiefurth, the castle of nooks and corners, where, on the banks of the Ilm, the "Fischerin" was played; Belvedere, overlooking the pretty town in the valley; and Ettersburg, where the "Iphigenie" was first performed with Goethe as *Orestes*. A visit to the archives, too, brings a rich reward. The letters to the Frau von Stein speak in the handwriting of Goethe a mute language which the printed editions cannot reproduce, and the painstaking care with which he has written the 'Roman Elegies' reminds one of Rousseau's 'Nouvelle Héloïse,' written on tinted note-paper with delicate neatness. But it is, perhaps, the social phase of the Weimar assemblies from which the greatest advantages accrue. During these days the intercourse between the members has something of the character of a family gathering, where the youngest may raise his voice in inquiry, and the patriarchs of the world of letters give themselves freely. This is one of the most important forces in maintaining that community of sentiment to which the Society owes its influence, actual and potential. The benefits of the formal meeting, which fell this year on May 26, are greatly enhanced by the fraternal spirit which pervades the whole.

The order of the day was the usual one. The entrance of the grand-ducal party with their guest, the Crown Prince of Greece, was the signal for the opening of the meeting. Kuno Fischer of Heidelberg was the orator of the day; his subject, Goethe's "Iphigenie." It cannot be said that the address contained strikingly new material or that the view-point was a new one; but novelty may be uncomplainingly dispensed with when the well-known stories are so well retold. The plan of the drama, the psychological conditions out of which it arose, its slow growth, "like the orange tree," the gradual metamorphosis from prose into verse, and the consequent enhancement of the pure, strong repose of the heroine's character, all gained new force from the refined observation of Kuno Fischer and from his eloquent delivery. "Iphigenie," like "Tasso," was conceived in Germany; Weimar experiences gave the motives, and Italy furnished the classic form. The work went on in many places, and sometimes amid strange surroundings. Knebel tells a story of Goethe engaged in official duties among Thuringian recruits; upon the table lay the lists, beneath them some other papers, the MS. of the "Iphigenie"! It accompanied him through Verona, Vicenza, Venice, and Bologna to Rome, where it was completed. The speaker emphasized the religious element in the drama. The first act closes with a prayer, a firm faith in the divine love; the fourth act with the old Titanic tones, the half-defiant song of the Fates. Which spirit will prove the stronger, the saving faith or the old curse on the house of Tantalus? This question is the centre of the dramatic interest. The liberation from the ancestral curse through the pure devotion and moral strength of *Iphigenie* has a parallel in Goethe's own experience: the soul emerging from the Titanic struggles of the *Sturm und Drang* into philosophic contemplation and quiet trust. The heaven-storming spirit of his Prometheus, with the defiant question to the gods, "I honor you! wherefore?" is

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calmed. The old rebelliousness against the divine justice echoes still in the song of the Fates, but like the memories of early childhood, the almost forgotten tones of long dead times; and to the angry "Wherefore?" of the *Sturm und Drang* the Hellenic repose of *Iphigenie* gives answer:

"Denn die Unsterblichen lieben der Menschen
Welt verbreitete gute Geschlechter."

Reconciliation in its widest sense is the theme of the "Iphigenie."

The speaker drew a brief comparison between the final version in verse and the prose version of 1781. The process of recasting the prose into metric form refined the conception of the whole, and suggested many delicate touches which the prose version had missed. The finer atmosphere of the verse required a further spiritualization of the beings that were to breathe in it. No reader can fail to be impressed with the singular purity which the very cadence of the verse lends to the heroine's character. In Bologna, before Raphael's St. Cæcilia, Goethe had resolved that his *Iphigenie* should never utter a word that might not have fallen from the lips of this saint. To Raphael's fine spirit are due, perhaps, many of the more subtle touches that distinguish the Italian from the German *Iphigenie*.

The oration was followed by some interesting communications from Erich Schmidt. Important MSS. relating to the second part of "Faust" have been found, though not in perfect preservation. The whole plan of the second part has been saved; it shows some insignificant variations from the form familiar to us—the incident of the paper money is, for instance, wanting; on the other hand, much new material has come to light, with some valuable hints from commentators. What Prof. Schmidt revealed stimulated, without gratifying, curiosity. He gave timely emphasis, however, to the fact that the days of "Sphinx" criticism are past, and the second part of "Faust" can no longer be thrust aside as a collection of disconnected old man's fancies. Quite as untenable is the view of the oracular interpreter who whispers of a wealth of mystic prophecy, as in the visions of St. John. A healthy appreciation of its high poetic worth has restored the second part to its proper rank as an inseparable member of the "Faust" poem. The conception of the *whole* of "Faust," wrote Goethe a few days before his death, was complete from the beginning. It had required sixty years to bring it to paper. He had conceived the plan of composing a poem of human life, and had waited for a *whole* life's experience to furnish him the materials. Erich Schmidt's address, as a specimen of philological scholarship, and Kuno Fischer's free, æsthetic treatment of his subject, afford excellent examples of the two forces united in the Goethe Society to the attainment of a common end.

The business reports were most satisfactory. The membership has reached nearly 3,000. England and America manifest a lively interest. The English branch publishes its first Year-book, and a new society has been formed in Manchester. Numerous gifts keep the treasury well filled, in spite of increased expenses. The library of MSS., letters, and printed books has been augmented by gift and purchase, and has reached a point of great completeness in the short space of three years. Through the efforts of the Grand Duchess, the literary remains of the Chancellor von Müller and of Eckermann have been secured—among the treasures of the latter being twelve *Volkslieder* collected by Goethe in 1771 from the lips of Alsatian peasants. The third publication of the Society, announced last year, will appear in the autumn; it will contain reproductions of twenty-two drawings from the hand of Goethe. Of the Goethe Museum little can be added to what readers of the *Nation* are already familiar with. One note is of interest. Besides the large collections of engravings, casts, geological specimens, and the numerous other evidences of Goethe's manysidedness, there is a collection of skulls. I am assured on good authority that, in the arrangement of these specimens seventy years ago, Goethe followed certain principles of his own which are to-day generally regarded as the result of the most recent scientific investigation and experience.

At the banquet in the afternoon some one hundred and fifty guests were present. Judge von Simson presided. It had been his office on two similar occasions to propose the first toast. The old enthusiasm was quieter this year, and there was something of sadness, hoping against hope, in the sentiment:

"Die Zahl der Tropfen, die er hegt,
Sei Euren Tagen zugelegt,"

with which each member raised his glass and drank the first toast to the Emperor Frederick. Grateful appreciation of the unwearied and disinterested energy of the high protectorate under which the Society stands, found expression in the toast of Herr von Loeper to the Grand Duke and Duchess of Saxe-Weimar. The Society listened then with much interest to an earnest story told by an old gentleman, who had known Goethe; it was the Hofrath Gille of Jena. He had often been employed as a messenger to the house of his Excellency, and remembers the kindly tone in which Goethe inquired into his boyish affairs. Of all days one is most memorable. The mourners were descending the Italian staircase as he entered. They had just left the room where shortly before the words "Mehr Licht" had been uttered and the great spirit passed away. It became Gille's duty to watch a whole night through by Goethe's side. The face lay in full, bright light; the classic features were in perfect rest, without sign of death, seeming to sleep—as if the body were immortal like the soul. The drawing which was made at the time, Gille assures us, is very like. The simple story of fifty-five years ago formed a pleasing incident in the festivities. The toast which was drunk to the President of the Society called forth a speech of unusual interest. In a few well-chosen words Simson sketched the story of his eventful life. He, too, had known Goethe. In the archives had been found a note from Eckermann introducing to Goethe "a promising young man of the name of Simson." Him who has seen Goethe fortune will never quite abandon, and to good fortune Simson modestly ascribed much of his success. He was a member of the Parliament of 1848, and was of the committee whose offers to the King of Prussia were peremptorily refused, as coming from the people. A strange turn of events brought him to Paris in 1870-1, and again he was of the delegation whose offers, as coming from the people, were not refused by the King of Prussia. It is a piece of rare historic and poetic justice that the member of Parliament in 1848 should still preside in 1888 over the highest court of the empire, in the building up of which he has played so interesting a part. Scattering toasts formed an easy transition from speech-making to general conversation, and need no mention here—except, perhaps, the toast to Schiller, which was appropriately addressed to his grandson, who was present, the Baron von Gleichen-Russwurm.

In the evening the Society met in the Court Theatre, as guests of the Grand Duchess. Two short plays of Goethe had been selected, and, thanks to the energy of the management, found favor in the eyes of an at first somewhat sceptical public. The first was the oldest that has come down to us of Goethe's plays: "Die Laune des Verliebten," a merry little idyl from the old student days in Leipzig, and reminding one of the paintings of Watteau. The second piece was the rollicking farce, "Der Jahrmarktsfest zu Plundersweilern," written already in the Frankfort period, and several times performed to the entertainment of the court at Ettersburg. Nothing could have been better adapted to the amusement of an after-dinner party; and the many-colored fun of these village revels, with the highly humorous shadow scenes from Old Testament history, brought the day to a merry close.

The departing guests of "Athens on the Ilm" took with them the memory of happy days in association with the great spirits of the past and the leading spirits of the present. The belief is gaining ground that the Goethe Society will not have finished its mission when the last volume of Goethe's works has appeared, but that it has a future in which it will be called upon to deal with problems of far wider range. The Grand Duke recently expressed the hope that out of this society, by natural and unforced development, a general parliament of German scholarship might arise, that should bear some resemblance to the French Academy, and, among other benefits, supply the German people with an "Academie der Sprache." Upon the initiative of the State such an institution is impossible, but the unifying and reconciling tendencies of a society such as this, render this hope, if not at first sight credible, at all events not chimerical. Rahel said of Goethe: "He is the point of union for all that goes under the name of man." About him as a point of union, the workers in the world of literature are already rallying. For Germany specifically, Goethe is perhaps the surest hope for the permanence of the united fatherland. A certain writer, whose genius and learning give his words weight, has recently said the time is coming when what Dante has been and still is to Italy, Goethe shall be to Germany. The Goethe Society is a form which this growing influence has taken. One of the toasts I omitted to mention; it was proposed by Herman Grimm to the Society itself, in the assured belief that not the members alone, but many thinkers and doers in many lands, will unite in the wish, "Sie möge gedeihen!" C. H. G.

PRIMITIVE CIVILIZATION IN ITALY.

RIETI, June 6, 1888.

THE most important elements in the recent archæological discoveries in Italy from the scientific point of view, are, I believe, those which throw light on the pre-Etruscan civilization of the peninsula. The recent discoveries at Sybaris, while a great disappointment to those who hoped to find the remains of a Greek city buried five centuries B. C., and therefore furnishing in its remains a definite line of demarcation in the arts, have on the other hand thrown an important light on the question of the state of Italian civilization prior to the advent of the Greeks.

The results of the excavations of the necropolis near the site of Sybaris show that it was the cemetery of a race which had not yet felt the influence of the Hellenic civilization, and as at best the site can only have been ten miles or so from Sybaris, it seems impossible that it should not have been anterior to the arrival of the Greeks. I say seems so, for Pigorini, who

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is an eminent authority, holds that the remains are those of an Italic tribe which drifted down into contact with the Greeks after the advent of the latter; but as he gives no reason for his opinion, and the entire absence of traces of Greek art in the objects found is an excellent reason for the contrary, I consider his opinion outweighed by that of Fiorelli, our highest authority in such matters, with whom are Gamurrini, the most experienced excavator of prehistoric remains in the district which must provide the material for our decisions, and Barnabei, the head of this section in the department of antiquities, all of whom hold no doubt as to the prehellenic date of the material discovered in the necropolis of the Sybarite district. I do not know what are the opinions of Lanciani, our other great authority on Italic prehistory, but I believe, from his previously expressed opinion on the Latin finds, that he would be with Fiorelli.

But the importance of the attribution of these objects will appear only when we learn that they are identical with the earliest art found in Vetulonia, Civita Castellana (the antique Falerii), and the most archaic tombs of Corneto (Tarquinia) as well as, in certain details, with the finds in the lacustrine deposits of the northern provinces of Italy. Especially the finding in all these named localities of the cinerary urns of the hut type, whose discovery on the top of the Alban mountain under two strata of volcanic deposits had long been considered the earliest evidence of Italian civilization, must be considered evidence of a common Italic civilization distinct from the Etruscan. The occurrence of these evidences of it in a district like that of the Basilicata, where the Etruscans never went, proves its independence of them, while its priority in development to the remains recognizable as Etruscan in locations like Falerii, Tarquinia, and Vetulonia proves its widespread existence prior to any distinctly Etruscan domination, and, I believe, prior to the Etruscan colonization.

Great weight must be accorded to the opinion of Helbig, who maintains distinctly that all this early art is early Etruscan, and that the well-tombs which at Tarquinia disclose the hut-urns in perfection are but an earlier form of Etruscan burial—in other words, that early Etruscan and archaic Italic are identical. Helbig's opinions are those of a profound student and master in this province, and must be met, if rejected, by grave objections. Fiorelli, however, finds them untenable, as do the Italian archæologists with whom I have personal acquaintance, and the Sybarite tombs are of the most serious importance in this controversy. Fiorelli maintains the existence of a primitive Italic civilization anterior to the Etruscan, and holds the community of these products of an archaic art from such widely separated localities as proof of it. Gamurrini goes further, and would identify it with the Pelasgic civilization to which so many traditions testify. And Castellani, in his discussion (informed by a most intimate technical knowledge of his art) of the early goldwork of Italy, shows that the most beautiful and characteristic art in this branch comes from places where there is no question that the Etruscans never had a footing. The enormous remains of civic greatness in the southern provinces of Italy entirely beyond the range of Etruscan influence, the walls of the great cities of Alatri, Arpino, and innumerable others in that section of Italy south of the valley of the Tiber —the country of the Sabini, Marsi, and Hernici—and even as far as Sicily, make it impossible to admit the priority of Etruscan civilization; for even Helbig concedes that the Etruscans came in about 900 B. C., while we have no tradition of any contemporary political organization except that of the Latin tribes which preceded Rome, and whose evidences we have in the remains of Antium, Ardea, Lanuvium, etc.—probably contemporary with Etruscan domination further north, since they are by tradition long prior to the foundation of Rome, while the ruins of Alatri, Arpino, and Segni, only a few miles away, are of an art utterly diverse and unquestionably far more primitive.

But in one of the well-tombs at Corneto was found a bronze helmet and bronze sword of admirable workmanship—early, because prior to the knowledge of the art of soldering—and, according to all authorities, of eastern provenance, and with them a hut-urn and the most primitive forms of hand-made pottery. Helbig, to maintain his theory, must bring this deposit down to the ninth century, and accordingly he considers it Carthaginian; but is it not equally to be explained by Fiorelli's hypothesis of an earlier Italic civilization which had occasional intercourse with the East—intercourse common enough in the Etruscan days?

It seems to me impossible to crowd all the evidences we have into the centuries between the Dorian emigration and the Etruscan arrival and the beginnings of Roman history. The colossal ruins in southern Italy, all of a stone-working epoch, cannot be thus disposed of, and furnish, it seems to me, indisputable testimony to the reality of the great Italic civilization of which the Latin, the Sabine, and whatever others might lie beyond were the fragments and successors.

Here, at Rieti, the ancient Reate, the stronghold of the Sabines, we have still confirmatory evidence, for the earliest remains to be found are not Pelasgic, but of the early Latin epoch, long anterior, if judged by the technique, to the oldest fragments of Rome, but also long posterior to the remains of the Pelasgic cities found beyond it in every direction. Even on one of the hills which dominate the plain of Rieti are some remains of the walls of one of them, built when a lake was where now the plain is; and beyond, to the southward for many miles, they multiply. Here the Etruscan never came; the indomitable mountaineers yielded only to the steady invasion and organized resources of Rome. The last point at which, so far, we can find traces of the Etruscan overlapping the earlier work, is at Cesi, at the opening of this valley, and in front (so to speak) of the gate of this great mountain country where the Italic civilization held its own longest. And Cesi is one of the most interesting points in this comparative study which I have yet visited. The remains of the early wall are of what is known as the first Cyclopean style. Huge masses of rock, unworked in any way, form a defence around the foot of a cliff penetrated by numerous caverns, in which it is reasonable to suppose were the first dwellings of the citizens. It has long been agreed by the authorities on this matter that the dwellings of these Pelasgic cities were in wood or some other perishable material, for in none of them, where they were abandoned in the early period, do we find a trace of interior construction. Walls of loose stone laid in, and plastered with mud, to keep the wind out, may not have been unused, but there is no evidence of them, nor could we expect to find any, as such walls for dwelling purposes could not long resist the elements when abandoned to them; but such aggregations of stone as even these would have left do not appear, and we have a right to believe that the first dwellings in these cities were in wood or skins, and that wall-building was purely a defensive labor. Here at Cesi we find the civic condition in the transition from cave dwelling to city dwelling proper, for with the defensive wall the city began.

To my great surprise, no excavations in the caves of Cesi have been made, though they would seem to promise most important results. That the city was a very early one is clear, and of its importance we can judge by the remains which indicate extensive and unusually complicated defensive works in the second Pelasgic epoch, and subsequently the Roman, ending with the destruction of the city and the removal of the habitants to Carsoli, on a lower site a few miles away, and with the return to Cesi from Carsoli in the middle ages, when Carsoli was sacked by the barbarians. That the Etruscans held it, is clear from their cippi, found in the necropolis near by, though, as no systematic excavations have yet been made, it is quite impossible to place the few remains we have. A few cippi found in digging the fields around are built into the walls of the houses for preservation, and the enterprising and intelligent Syndic, Signor Eustachi, has gathered and will impart all we know of the history of the city. A charming drive of five miles from Terni brings us to the old city overlooking the valley of the Nera, and the country between Narni and Spoleto—a beautiful and healthful country, which must in all ages have been an attraction to the races that traversed Italy.

W. J. S.

Correspondence.

FACT VS. THEORY OF LAW.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: In the *Nation* of last week a correspondent of yours expresses difficulty in understanding a distinction drawn by Von Holst, when writing on the President's veto power, between a *fact* and a *theory of law*. The distinction is doubtless too profound for most of us, but may be illustrated by an example from its author's 'Constitutional History of the United States.' This elaborate work, in discussing Jackson's veto of the Bank Bill, assumes broadly the theory of law that the United States Supreme Court's decision that the bank was constitutional was conclusive upon the President, and deprived him of any right to enter upon the question; and the author indulges in some little Teutonic eloquence upon the subject, maintaining to the full that the court had ended the matter, and that their decisions are, by our *theory of law*, always final and conclusive, even upon other departments of the Federal Government, upon all questions of constitutional power.

Some years ago, wishing to see how far authors would adhere to this doctrine when the court chanced to decide in a way which did not suit their ideas, Von Holst occurred to me as one who upheld the doctrine broadly when the court had the luck to be with him; so I turned on a venture to his pages on the question of the right to take slaves into the Territories, and found, as expected, that his *theory of law* went at once to the four winds of heaven. He there argues that Calhoun's position was "logically, historically, and constitutionally, absolutely untenable," and then says the "only one argument of real weight" in Calhoun's favor was that the Supreme Court had twice rendered decisions which, *if correct*, bore out his doctrine; and then, with supreme oblivion of the *theory of law* as to the finality of judicial decisions, he proceeds to prove to his own satisfaction that the court was *wrong*.

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His opinion on the Bank Bill veto was certainly based on a *theory of law*, so probably his later cruel desertion of his own adopted child was based on some abstruse conception he would call a *fact*. Can one wonder that people call things "mere" theories when they are so easily cast away, like an old collar that has grown frayed and irritates one's neck?

Very respectfully yours, WM. M. MEIGS.

PHILADELPHIA, June 18, 1888.

Notes.

A PIQUANT work about to appear at Jacksonville is 'Carpet-Bag Rule in Florida,' being the inside workings of the reconstruction of civil government in that State after the close of the war, by John Wallace, late Senator from Leon County. The author, formerly a slave of unmixed African blood, sought freedom in the Union lines when Gen. Burnside was operating in North Carolina, and afterwards enlisted and fought on the Union side. He has served for twelve years in both branches of the Legislature, and now holds "that the ascendancy of the Democratic party to the State Government in 1877 has proved a blessing in disguise to the colored people of Florida."

Mr. Wm. Henry Perrin has prepared for the Filson Club a work on 'The Pioneer Newspaper Press of Kentucky,' which will be published by John P. Morton & Co., Louisville, Ky., and sold to subscribers in a limited edition.

'Uncle Tom's Tenement,' a novel by Mrs. Alice Wellington Rollins, will be published next month by the William E. Smythe Co., Boston.

Henry Holt & Co. will be the American publishers of 'A Modern Brigand,' by the author of 'Miss Bayle's Romance.' Its characters are, Daudet-like, thinly disguised contemporary notabilities in the British financial world, and even in politics.

John B. Alden announces 'A Fortnight of Folly,' by Maurice Thompson.

Clarke & Carruth, Boston, have in press 'Among the Theologies,' by Hiram Orcutt, LL.D.

Houghton, Mifflin & Co. have in press a biography of Delia Bacon, who in her 'Philosophy of Shakespeare's Plays' announced and vigorously maintained the theory that Sir Walter Raleigh, Bacon, and others were the real authors. The book, from the pen of Mr. Theodore Bacon of Rochester, contains many letters of interest by Carlyle, Emerson, and Hawthorne.

An anti-Baconian work, in the sense that praise of any other Republican candidate is dispraise of Blaine, is 'William Shakspere Portrayed by Himself,' by Robert Waters, author of a 'Life of Cobbett,' announced by Worthington Co.

Mr. Chas. G. Leland's 'Dictionary of Slang, Jargon, and Cant,' now in the press of Whittaker & Co., London, will be followed directly by a work on 'Americanisms' from the same hand.

A new eclectic monthly periodical is announced, "*Current Literature:* A Magazine of Record and Review." Book reviews will form an original feature. Publication will begin next month at 42 West Twenty-third Street, New York city.

At the same time the Photo-Gravure Co. of this city will issue *Sun and Shade*, a periodical "composed exclusively of plates by the finer photographic reproduction processes." Each number will have as a supplement a plate, 14x11, in copper-plate photogravure.

The first number of *Belford's Magazine*, edited by Mr. Donn Piatt, is before us. This new venture patterns after *Lippincott's Magazine* in so far as it gives a complete novel each month. In other respects it is what the prospectus led us to expect. Mr. Thomas G. Shearman furnishes the opening paper, on "Protection, the Enemy of Wages"; Mr. J. S. Moore has something to say about "Free Wool"; Mr. Henry George addresses a word "To Workingmen"; Mr. Frank H. Hurd begins papers on "Tariff Reform"; while the editor himself lays about him vigorously in his own department, discoursing of "Free Trade and Congress." Evidently, the Republican managers must reckon with *Belford's Magazine* in the coming campaign.

A special distinction of size, paper, type, illustrations, and collaboration has been achieved by the *Universal Review* in its first issue of May 15 (London: Swan Sonnenschein & Co.; New York: International News Co.). We recognize its general indebtedness to French models, particularly to the larger and costlier *Les Lettres et les Arts*. Sir Charles Dilke discusses "The State of Europe and the Position of England," having in mind the possibility of a Franco-Russian alliance as the result of Boulanger's rise to dictatorship. Emily Crawford depicts Boulanger's amiability of manner and character. Mrs. Lynn Linton analyzes those stories of Zola in which he has kept most faithfully (and also least indecently) to the *idée mère* of the Rougon-Macquart series. An anonymous writer deprecates distrust of American securities. The editor, Harry Quilter, criticises with great frankness the pictures in the Royal Academy. Earl Pembroke offers some brief considerations on the reform of the House of Lords. Classic learning is reflected in A. W. Verrall's "Roman of Greater Rome," with its metrical translations from Martial. Louis de Fourcaud vindicates, in French, Balzac's love or appreciation of music. Per contra, Daudet's new novel is begun in English ('One of the Forty'). The sum of all this prose is perhaps not very weighty. The poetry, though by Lewis Morris and Edwin Arnold, is of little worth. The illustrations, especially of the Academy paintings, are very good, being French-made. But the original sketches here reproduced as ornament are mostly feeble.

M. Salomon Reinach opens the March number of the *American Journal of Archæology* (Boston: Ginn & Co.) with an interesting comparison of an antique Greek head picked up at Smyrna with an inscribed portrait bust of Plato in the Old Museum at Berlin. A large photogravure of the former accompanies the article, and there is a little process cut of the Berlin bust. Whatever may be thought of the identification, the new head is a striking one. Mr. W. M. Ramsay contributes the second of his three papers on the antiquities of Southern Phrygia, with route maps; Mr. S. B. P. Trowbridge figures some archaic Ionic capitals found on the Acropolis of Athens, which serve as missing links in the evolution of the order; Mr. Alfred Emerson has a discursive and rather prolix article on a bronze votive offering in the Museum at Metaponto, Italy, and Dr. William Hayes Ward interprets two stone tablets, with hieroglyphic Babylonian writing, which are beautifully photo-engraved. There is the usual comprehensive and orderly miscellany of news, reviews, etc.

The eighth and ninth numbers of the current volume of *Vom Fels zum Meer* (New York: F. W. Christern) have a special interest at the present time. The first named contains a long biographical notice of the Emperor Wilhelm I., by Gottlob Egelhaaf, with a remarkable array of portraits from infancy to old age, and other illustrations, including a fine double-sheet engraving of the two Emperors whom Germany has been called upon to mourn since the year came in. This is followed by an anonymous paper on the Hohenzollerns, with more portraits, from Frederick the first Elector of Brandenburg down to Frederick III. Finally, Wilhelm I. is again the topic of an article by Theodor Braun. In the ninth number Eugen von Jagow gives brief reminiscences of the same monarch. Noticeable besides is an article on Paul Veronese, by Oscar Doering, with many illustrations.

Some useful suggestions for the teaching of rhetoric may be derived from a paper by Mr. William B. Chamberlain on literary work in colleges, based on a special inquiry made at Oberlin. It will be found in the pamphlet Transactions of the nineteenth annual meeting of the Association of Ohio Colleges (Columbus).

The Library Edition of Besant and Rice's novels (Dodd, Mead & Co.) is extended by 'Ready-Money Mortiboy,' 'The Seamy Side,' and 'The Chaplain of the Fleet.' The volume first named has an etched portrait of the late junior partner in this literary firm.

Roberts Brothers add 'Rhoda Fleming' to the Popular Edition of George Meredith's works.

Besides his 'Physiologie des Quais de Paris,' which we have already announced, M. Octave Uzanne is engaged on a 'Dictionnaire du Bibliophile,' a much needed work. His New Year's book will be 'Le Paroissien du Célibataire,' illustrated by M. Lynch.

M. Ernest Legouvé continues the publication of his "Théâtre Complet" (Paris: Ollendorff; New York: F. W. Christern). We have already noticed his volume of one-act comedies, and now comes a volume of 'Comédies et Drames,' containing "Louise de Lignerolles," "Par Droit de Conquête," and "Adrienne Lecouvreur." Most of the matter in the prefaces to these plays has already appeared in M. Legouvé's 'Souvenirs.'

M. Vitu of the *Figaro* has just issued the fifth volume of his 'Mille et Une Nuits du Théâtre' (Paris: Ollendorff; New York: F. W. Christern), in which we find the five hundredth night, and which covers only the performances of 1877. If critics are

> "miracles of learning
> Who point out faults to show their own discerning,"

we must express our wonder that any one as well informed as M. Vitu should seemingly be ignorant of the anonymous share which M. Sardou had in dramatizing Paul Féval's 'Bossû,' known in English as the "Duke's Motto" (p. 301). M. Jules Lemaitre sends forth the second volume of his 'Impressions de Théâtre,' as bright and as lively as the first. M. Lemaitre is fond of dwelling on the side-shows of the stage—the ballets, the *cafés-chantants*, the circus, and so forth; and this allows a critic the chance to suggest that he has apparently never read the delightful memoirs of Robert-Houdin, or he would not think him a representative of the old school of modern magic. The fact is, that it was Robert-Houdin who made over the whole art of conjuring.

'Paris—Histoire, Mouvements, Administration,' by M. Fernand Bournon (Paris: Colin; New York: F. W. Christern) is a young folks' history of the capital of France to be warmly recommended to all parents who are likely to take their children to the banks of the Seine. A bright boy or a clever girl would enjoy the

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first part, in which the annals of Paris are sketched; and would gain a glimmering of architectural knowledge from the second part, which considers the chief buildings of the French capital chronologically. Nor would the final division, describing the organization of the city as it is to-day, be without interest. We wish that there were as good a sketch of New York, as exactly illustrated. Here are thirteen maps and one hundred and fifty woodcuts—none of them the fancy pictures only too often found in American books of the same class. M. Bournon is better equipped as an antiquary than as a literary historian; and this is perhaps the sole excuse for his strange blunder when (p. 334) he puts the famous first performance of "Hernani" at the Odéon instead of at the Théâtre-Français.

The present Servian Minister of Foreign Affairs, Mr. Tchedomil Miyátovitch, has just published, in the Proceedings of the Royal Servian Academy, a paper showing that both King Milan and Queen Natalie are descended through the family of Balshitch in the female line from Stephen Nemania, the first Servian King, who died 1159; and that thus the historical continuity of the Servian dynasty has been preserved in the present generation. It may be added that the Balshitch family is descended from the Seigneurs des Baux (near Arles), who were the ancestors of the House of Orange and furnished occupants of half the thrones of Europe. One of this family is said to have gone to the East during the Crusades, and to have founded a little principality somewhere in Albania. The Servian Academy has drawn up a plan for the preservation of public documents scattered in various places through the country, which have hitherto been greatly neglected. There is reason to hope that it will shortly publish a collection of interesting papers relating to the administrative activity of Prince Milosh, the founder of modern Servia.

The one hundredth anniversary of the birth of Vuk Karajitch, the great collector of national songs, and the founder of modern Servian literature and of the literary language, will be celebrated on August 15 (27). On the initiative of King Milan, the Government has contributed 10,000 francs towards the expenses of the celebration.

—A correspondent writes us from Chapel Hill, N. C.:

"*In re* a statement about State executive vetoes in your issue of May 31, I call your attention to the fact that in North Carolina the Governor never signed Acts of Assembly, and does not now. We had bad colonial governors, and our people have never forgotten it."

—We regret to learn of the death at Lucca, Italy, on May 31, of E. Gryzanovski, M.D., a man of very remarkable attainments, and of very brilliant qualities as a writer. In proof of the latter assertion, we might appeal to his contributions to the *Nation* during the years 1870-72. These almost untouched writings will also bear us out in stating that no foreigner in our experience ever used the English language so correctly and gracefully. Dr. Gryzanovski was, in fact, an extraordinary linguist. We learn from the London *Athenæum* of June 9 that he began life as an attaché to the Prussian Embassy at Rome forty years ago, but abandoned diplomacy for medicine, which he practised at Florence, Pisa, and Leghorn, enjoying the friendship of English residents of the eminence of Landor, Browning, Trollope, and Mrs. Somerville (Gryzanovski was, by the way, a profound mathematician). In statistics, too, he was at home, and skilled in the theory of music. Our last communication from him arose from his desire to enlist us in the crusade against vaccination.

—The first two parts of the great illustrated work on the Berlin picture gallery have just been issued by the Museum authorities. The first part deals with the Florentine school of the fifteenth century; the other is devoted to Rubens. Six full-page etchings or engravings accompany, without permanently belonging to, each part. When the work is complete, these plates will require rearrangement. They, of course, form the *raison d'être* of the publication, and challenge comparison with the engravings in similar "Illustrated Galleries," so many of which were issued in the great days of line-engraving. Some of the etchings are very good, notably those by W. Unger. We may mention especially the renderings of Rubens's "Andromeda," Velasquez's "Portrait of Alessandro del Borro," and Van Dyck's "Dead Christ." The line-engravings are delicate in general effect, but lack depth of insight into the feeling of the masters they would interpret. A number of vignettes are included in the text. These are either heliogravures, etchings, or woodcuts. The little etchings are particularly good, and the subjects chosen for heliogravure are well suited for treatment by that dangerous process. The woodcuts are not so good. That after Rubens's battle-piece is entirely inadequate to represent the powerful unfinished picture, which must certainly be considered one of the chief glories of the gallery so fortunate as to possess it. The text is contributed by Dr. Julius Meyer and Dr. W. Bode. It is, therefore, scholarly and authoritative. The essay upon the art of Italy in the fifteenth century is not light reading, but the biographies of artists are good and far more complete than might have been expected in such a work. The information about individual pictures is exhaustive, and would alone suffice to make this publication take rank as an indispensable book of reference. The text is well printed in large type on good paper.

—The April-May double number of the *Centralblatt für Bibliothekswesen* contains a useful list, compiled by H. Stein, of 189 indexes to French historical periodicals, including those devoted to such allied subjects as archæology, art, philology, etc. The titles are given with commendable fulness, and in most cases a brief note as to the utility and plan of the index is appended. The unsatisfactory index of the *Revue des Deux Mondes* receives merited condemnation, as do several others. The compiler promises a second list to include the indexes to non-historical French periodicals, and, if sufficient encouragement be received, proposes to give similar lists of the indexes to English, German, and Italian periodicals. An article by the editor of the *Centralblatt* gives a brief summary of the results obtained by Karabacek and Wiesner from their investigations among the papers of the Rainer collection, and calls attention to the recent experiments made by Martens on modern printing paper. It is stated that out of ninety-two periodicals examined by Martens, sixty-two were found to be printed on paper so largely composed of wood-pulp and other inferior materials that it is doubtful if many of them can be preserved in existence for more than a single century. Karl Trübner of Strassburg gives an interesting account of the negotiations undertaken by him, which led to the restoration of the Libri and Barrois MSS. in the Ashburnham collection to the French National Library, and the transfer to Germany of the famous Manesse manuscript, carried off from Heidelberg during the Thirty Years War, and afterwards presented to the French national collection. Among the book reviews in this number the "Bibliographical Synopsis" of the Ante-Nicene Fathers, prepared by E. C. Richardson, the accomplished librarian of the Hartford Theological Seminary, receives an appreciative notice. The second supplement number of the *Centralblatt* contains a valuable contribution to the knowledge of musical manuscripts in the Middle Ages, with special reference to work of the monks of Reichenau, by W. Brambach, and an attempt by F. W. Roth to clear up some of the confusion concerning the writings of Heinrich von Langenstein.

—The *Zoölogischer Jahresbericht* for 1886, recently issued, shows a marked change of plan, as compared with its predecessors. Instead of four main divisions, comprising over 1,300 pages, we have a single volume of about 450 pages, with 13 separate paginations; the alphabetical index is given up, and its place is taken by an index of authors, with special indexes for one or two of the chief groups. Systematic and faunal zoölogy, which occupied so large a space in former years, is omitted entirely, as are also the reports on Hungarian, Polish, and Russian literature. In the preface the editor takes occasion to censure the irregular ways of certain periodicals, and some of his remarks will bear repeating. In the interest of justice towards conflicting claims to priority of publication, he desires to call general attention to the fact that not a few periodicals, "including such well-known ones as the *Archives de Zoölogie Expérimentale*, the *Archives de Biologie*, and the *Annales des Sciences Naturelles*, follow a trade custom of giving to the completed volume the date of the first number, though several years may have elapsed between that date and the completion of the volume. Then, again, it sometimes happens (as in the case of the *Memoirs of the Museum of Comparative Zoölogy at Harvard College*, the *Archiv für Naturgeschichte*, the *Transactions of the Connecticut Academy*, etc.) that several volumes of one and the same periodical are in course of publication at the same time, their issues extending over a series of years. This must later, of necessity, lead to all sorts of unpleasant confusion. It may, therefore, be permitted to request that the custom of the *Zeitschrift für Wissenschaftliche Zoölogie* be followed, in giving on each number the date of its publication; and this date should be given in the contents of the completed volume, which should also state the year or years which it covers, not merely that for which it may originally have been intended. The question of separate reprints (or, more accurately, off-prints) also demands attention. In many cases it is only with difficulty that they can be recognized as articles from periodicals, bearing, as they frequently do, a separate pagination. It is high time to abandon this old, but nevertheless bad system. Not only should the original pagination be retained, but care should be taken to show plainly the origin of the off-print. To this end it is recommended that upon the first page a note be made of the volume, number, and date of the periodical from which it is taken. Still more to be censured is the custom followed by some authors of sending out these off-prints long before the appearance of the number of the periodical to which they belong, with the implied request that this distribution shall be considered as an actual publication. So far as the *Jahresbericht* is concerned, this cannot be done; it holds fast to the rule that only the publishers' edition of the number can be taken as determining the date of publication." It is doubtful if this protest

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and request will have any effect, for the editors of learned periodicals seem to be a law unto themselves, and to have a hearty contempt for anything like regularity in their proceedings. It may not be out of place to add that, though Dr. Mayer's examples of the evils he deprecates have been drawn chiefly from American and French publications, the Germans themselves are among the worst offenders in this respect.

—One of the most noteworthy of recent contributions to the great educational discussion of the day is furnished by the May *Rundschau* in an article by Herman Grimm, entitled, "Die deutsche Schulfrage und unsere Classiker." The writer has in mind, to be sure, the German schools, but his reflections are such as to be of interest wherever people are debating the pedagogical value of the Greek and Latin classics. Grimm begins by formulating the "opinion of the public"—the opinion, that is, of those who hold that the gymnasia do not furnish the education that they ought to furnish. The two criticisms to which most attention is given, are, first, that the students do not learn German history, and, secondly, that they do not learn to handle the German language as they should. These complaints are found by the essayist to be abundantly justified by the facts. He then proceeds to contrast the present time with half a century ago, when the Greeks and Romans were really of supreme importance in education, because they supplied the student with a starting-point for high thought and high endeavor. Then, all antiquity was idealized by both teacher and learner; hence it did not seem absurd to give a great deal of attention to the battle of Pharsalia and only a little to the battle of Leipzig, since men's historical imagination somehow did not regard the actors and issues at Leipzig as belonging to the same order of events with the actors and issues at Pharsalia. But now all this is different. Historical and archæological research have brought to light a vast mass of detailed information concerning the Greeks and Romans, and in so doing have shorn them of their halo. We study them as we study a multitude of other ancient peoples. We have brought them down from the clouds and have learned to criticise and explain them in the terms of modern life. The result of all is, that they have ceased to be for the student an inspiration, and have become instead a cram to be got up for examinations. Such being the state of things, it *does* seem irrational that a German schoolboy should be required to spend so much time upon the study of ancient languages and history that he cannot be taught to wield his mother-tongue creditably, or to understand why his countrymen celebrate the anniversary of Sedan.

—All this, it may be said, is a tolerably familiar lament. The important question is, of course, the practical one, What shall be done about it? Here it is that Grimm's line of thought becomes somewhat novel. If the glamour of the Greeks and Romans is gone, he reasons, we must do something to bring it back. What gave them their importance a few years ago was the fact that they were looked up to; for what makes study profitable is not so much the knowledge obtained as the spirit which the student brings to his work. But now, the argument continues, the prestige of the ancients is not to be brought back by our present methods—neither by the pick and spade of the modern archæologist, nor by the philological hair-splitting of the modern professor. There is only one way to reach the desired end, and that is, for Germans at least, to learn to look at the ancients through the eyes of Goethe and his contemporaries. The schoolboy must learn to reverence antiquity by learning what antiquity meant to the great classical writers of a hundred years ago. Thus the classics may again become an inspiration, if not for their own sake, yet for the sake of the influence they have exerted upon the intellectual history of the fatherland. Such is the thought elaborated by Grimm, with all his well-known literary skill and breadth of historical outlook. He sums up the logic of the situation, as it appears to him, in this definite expression of opinion: "I believe that we are moving in a direction such as will ultimately make the German language and literature the starting-point of all instruction" ("Ich glaube wir treiben in einer Richtung, dass die deutsche Sprache und Literatur zu dem endlich werden wird, von dem alle Lehre ausgeht").

—The agitation which has been going on for the last few months in Italy about the name of Giordano Bruno shows that the conflict between Church and State is far more serious than Italian Liberals and Radicals are willing to admit. The question arose with a proposition to erect a monument to Bruno in the Campo dei Fiori in Rome, where it is said he was burned in 1600, at least in effigy; but it has since gone through a variety of phases, and has given rise to some absurd incidents. The original proposition was made without much reflection when the mania for erecting statues was raging in Italy—simply with the idea that it would be a fine thing to commemorate one of the apostles or martyrs of free thought in the very headquarters of intellectual slavery. There was at that time no political idea in the movement, which started with a few professors and literary men. A very small amount of money was subscribed, chiefly abroad—partly in America—and almost wholly by Protestants, who could not refuse this fine occasion of showing their contempt for the Pope. In point of fact, not enough money was raised to pay for the pedestal of the statue which a sculptor volunteered to make without remuneration. This artist is himself a violent Radical, and when the Municipal Council of Rome showed no signs of erecting his statue, and of allowing him his share of glory, he consulted his political friends, who resolved to use the occasion for a demonstration against the Pope and his claims to Rome.

—The Pope was celebrating his jubilee, and it was thought that the anniversary of the battle of Mentana would be a heaven-sent opportunity for erecting the statue, and for a display of Radical and Republican oratory. But now some of the chief supporters of the scheme, including the well-known statesman Bonghi, withdrew their support when they found that what was intended as a philosophical protest was being turned into an anti-clerical demonstration. The Radicals took up the matter throughout the whole country, public meetings were held in every large and small town, and fiery speeches were made by men who, up to that time, were totally ignorant of Bruno's life and achievements. There were innumerable articles in the journals, and every publisher thought it opportune to bring out a book or a pamphlet about the philosopher of Nola. One might have thought that some great Italian patriot was in question, and not an obscure disfrocked monk. Excitement increased to such an extent that it became necessary for the Roman municipality finally to settle the matter. Their first discussion of the subject was interrupted by the audience, but at last, on May 11, it was decided by a large vote to refuse permission to erect the statue. It came out in the course of the discussion that a bust of Giordano Bruno had been for a long time in the Pincio Garden, although none of the manifestants (if the word may be used) had ever noticed it. Luckily, it would be absurd now to crown it with flowers and laurel leaves. The worst feature of all this has been the attitude of the students throughout Italy, rendered worse by the want of firmness of the University authorities and the culpable negligence of the Minister of Public Instruction. Professors have been almost compelled to deliver eulogies on Bruno; others, who have refused or objected, have been hissed at and publicly insulted. The refusal to grant rooms in the University building for such demonstrations has brought about riots and rebellions of the students, so that it has been necessary temporarily to close several institutions of learning. Encouraged by their success in some places, the students have taken a taste for political manifestations, which led the other day at Bologna to some very disgraceful scenes.

—Two volumes of 'Souvenirs et notes biographiques,' by M. Désiré Nisard (Paris: Calmann Lévy; Boston: Schoenhof), have just been published by the family of the recently deceased Academician and literary critic. These memoirs were written for posthumous publication, apparently with the sole intention of placing in what appeared to the author to be their true light certain much discussed points in his own career, certain misrepresentations from which his memory still suffers. The manner in which he treats these ancient accusations and hatreds makes the principal interest of the volumes. Their literary value consists not so much in what they contain, interesting as that always is, as in the discussions to which they will give rise, and the consequent better understanding of a period which political passion has made legendary even in the most purely literary of its aspects. The general opinion in regard to the points in M. Nisard's life about which the most injurious accusations have been made, will probably change materially before his successor in the French Academy is elected, at the beginning of next winter; and the literary public, so large a part of which has heretofore been inimical to him, may be able by the time that successor is received there to listen with patience, if not with sympathy, to the eulogy of one who has had many enemies, who were always, it has been said, the enemies of his opinions and not of his person.

—Mr. James Gow, who has done creditable work in Greek mathematics, and is not to be confounded with the ordinary run of manufacturers of school-books, has undertaken to compress into a single volume a great amount of information, such as is presupposed in most of the editions of the classics that are intended for preparatory schools. In this compilation he has made use of the most recent authorities, and the young student will find in his 'Companion to School Classics' (Macmillan & Co.) the pith of many books in the space of less than four hundred pages. Of course, much had to be omitted, in order to make the book handy and legible. It does not take the place of a classical dictionary, there is no history of literature, no mythology; but much of the information given would be sought to no purpose in the ordinary manuals, and what is given is conveyed in its true connection, which is a great gain. The scrappy knowledge one gets from brief dictionary articles seldom abides, is seldom fruitful. At the same time, what seems to be an excellent index facilitates reference in the schoolboy's time of need. The illustrations of some of the points in textual

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criticism are amusingly insular, but the book was intended for home consumption, and no right-minded man objects to local flavor.

A FAMILY LIFE OF BEECHER.

A Biography of Henry Ward Beecher. By William C. Beecher and Rev. Samuel Scoville, assisted by Mrs. Henry Ward Beecher. Charles L. Webster & Co. 1888.

THIS biography of Mr. Beecher is a volume of 713 pages octavo. A brief appendix and an index, tolerably full, cover about 25 pages, so that, in the remaining 688, the type not being very large, we have a good deal of matter. The preparation of so bulky a volume within the year succeeding Mr. Beecher's death means haste as well as diligence. The diligence would have been greater if the authors had not had recourse so frequently to quotation. They have used the scissors more freely than the pen, and generally with more discrimination. The extracts from Mr. Beecher's sermons and addresses are extremely copious, but they are always welcome. They are the best reading in the book, and their style, though frequently diffuse, and sometimes questionable upon the side of taste, is most agreeable in comparison with the style of his biographers. This surely is not good, whether we speak of Mrs. Beecher's contribution, which is confined (the acknowledged part) to an account of Mr. Beecher's courtship and marriage, or to the mingled work of Mr. Beecher's son and son-in-law. We are left entirely to the matter and the manner to decide which of the two is writing for the time being. Generally it is Mr. Scoville, whose style is marked by an effusive pulpit rhetoric, while Mr. W. C. Beecher's is that of the small local newspaper, tending to broad effects, and to that kind of wit and humor which consists in saying simple things in an involved and polysyllabic way.

Mr. Beecher's autobiographical part is in two sections. These are concerned with the most momentous situations of his life: his English round of speeches in 1863, and the Tilton complication. His account of the latter goes on for twenty-five pages and then comes to a sudden stop, while the affair is still in mid career. It was written in 1874. Confessedly, it has been much doctored by the editors, but, whether injured or improved, its quality is such that we cannot but regret that Mr. Beecher did not exhaust the matter. What his biographers have added is too much intent on fastening an opprobrious stigma upon some of his "enemies." The whole account of "the conspiracy" is very painful reading. It brings back the dreadful period of Mr. Beecher's tragical experience more vividly than to his friends in general will seem right and good. The busy years have done more for his fame than will these recollections and recriminations. Mr. Beecher's account of the matter has the accent of complete sincerity. But then how hatefully his letters and his actions lent themselves to base interpretations! How monstrous must have been the ingenuity that could turn his impulses of foolish generosity into instruments of torture for his sick and wounded heart! At times a great religious exaltation seems to have kept him strong and confident in the midst of his accumulating ills. But the impression is ineradicable that all the triumphs and successes of his life were outweighed by its one tremendous sorrow.

This sorrow would appear to have been hardly for a moment absent from the minds of his biographers. The tone of the whole book is colored by it in no slight degree. It is a tone of advocacy, of defence. Mr. Scoville and Mr. Beecher write almost continuously as if their father's greatness were a matter in dispute; as if it were necessary for them to come to his rescue with the phrases of a cheap and fulsome adulation. Their vaulting ambition frequently overleaps itself, as in the attempt to show that Mr. Beecher was the most prominent and efficient of all anti-slavery workers, and in the contention that he was the greatest preacher since St. Paul, backed by a running comparison of "the least of the Apostles" with the Plymouth pastor. Whether or not we have here errors of judgment, we have certainly errors of taste. Mr. Beecher was not himself superior to such, and some of them have been perpetuated here with excess of fairness, or unconsciously. There were elements in his nature which were as soft and delicate as the flowers he loved. There were also in him elements of coarser grain. His similes and metaphors might sometimes have been more refined without appreciable loss. It is not likely that his biographers would agree to this. A passage so grossly indelicate as that on page 599 is evidence that their own standard of good taste is not such that it would be likely to detect a fault in anything that Mr. Beecher ever said or wrote.

It is not perhaps a matter for surprise that this biography, though so voluminous, adds very little to our knowledge of Mr. Beecher's life and character. It contains no essential facts that were not reported in the various elaborate notices of him that appeared in the leading journals of the country at the time of his death. The material for such notices was abundant, a biography of Mr. Beecher having been published to celebrate his seventieth year, while his sermons and Yale lectures are full of biographical data. The present work confirms the earlier impression that few of our contemporaries have been able to indulge in personal reminiscence to the extent that Mr. Beecher did without offensive egotism, and he had himself at times "something too much of this"—too much for the unspoiled simplicity of his own self-consciousness, if not for the instruction and amusement of his congregation and the community at large.

The poverty of the book is most remarkable in a direction from which we had a right to expect a good deal that we had not had before—his correspondence. Such of his letters as are given are so delightful that our regret is greater that they are so few. And nearly related to this impression is another that is unavoidable—that of a certain solitariness in Mr. Beecher's life. The book gives this impression, but in doing so we do not believe that it is a faithful representation. We have Mr. Beecher presented to us as a famous preacher and a great public leader, and a most affectionate and happy husband and father; but in the relations of friendship he is not presented to us at all except in those that turned to bitterness. But surely Bowen and Tilton were not his only friends. He had many true and tried in Plymouth Church, if not beyond its pale, and that they make no sign is not only an injustice to their brave fidelity, but also to Mr. Beecher's appreciation of their worth; and the failure of the biographers at this point is not one of the least of many grave defects in their too hastily considered work.

A chapter of twenty-five pages is allowed to Mr. Beecher's work as a preacher. It describes the methods of his preparation and his pulpit manner, and pays some slight attention to his theology. Of course, this chapter is not exhaustive of Mr. Beecher as a preacher. There is in the volume considerable incidental reference to his preaching, especially in the chapters relating to his Western life. But evidently this aspect of his career does not touch the hearts of his biographers as does his political activity. His reputation as an anti-slavery reformer and shaper of political events is their peculiar care. It may be doubted whether their estimate of the relative merits of his preaching and his political function is an estimate that will stand fast. It is certain that his preaching is deserving of a more careful treatment than it has received. No stranger to Mr. Beecher's habits of thought and speech would ever get from these pages a just impression of the width of his divergence from the orthodoxy of his time, or of the disintegrating effect of his preaching upon this orthodoxy. As a theologian, he was vague and inconsistent, saying a thing to-day, unsaying it to-morrow; but a little patience on the part of any competent analyst would have brought out some things tolerably clear. The methods of his pulpit preparation—his subject seldom chosen before Sunday morning—were a premium upon that swift forgetfulness which is sure to overtake his sermons if it has not overtaken them already. He deliberately resigned the hope of literary excellence in them that he might increase their immediate effect. They are what we might expect from improvisation. Easy talking as well as easy writing generally makes hard reading. Harder reading than the volumes of 'Plymouth Pulpit' it would be difficult to find. Yet they abound in phrases, in illustrations, in parables, that could hardly have been bettered by the most careful predetermination. The exquisite beauty of Mr. Beecher's thoughts and fancies has little justice done to it by his biographers. They have given us enough of his more wilful and elaborate fine writing about lovely things; but it was the passing touch that best revealed the poetical quality of his mind.

If their treatment of the preacher is not satisfactory, their treatment of the editor is less so, if possible. Of his political work upon the *Independent* we have good examples. Excellent work it was, but not always excellent. There were "On to Richmond" editorials of the most heedless sort. Wendell Phillips's "slave-hound" epithet for Lincoln was hardly more abusive, and was less contemptuous, than Mr. Beecher's editorials, for which in his repentance he made large amends. But a good judge of character he seems never to have been. His biographers have given a much too favorable account of his relation to the Johnson Administration. However honorable his advocacy of a policy of the largest clemency towards the conquered South, his assignment of Johnson to the highest rank of patriotism and statesmanship, to the side of Washington in history, was a capital example of the tendency of his zeal to outrun discretion. The impeachment business was no doubt a great mistake, but that Johnson's utter political recreancy was not overrated by its most ardent promulgators is now established by a host of witnesses—Gen. Grant, perhaps, the most important. Of Mr. Beecher's connection with the *Christian Union* we have the barest mention, and that incidental to the Tilton trouble. Possibly a connection that tended strongly to be sinecure and nominal deserved little more, but the paper represented excellently well one of the most characteristic and most honorable aspects of Mr. Beecher's religious mind—his superiority to sectarian narrowness. If others did the work for which he received the credit on the *Christian Union*, it was a most efficient annex of his pulpit in its plea for unsectarian religion.

More prominence is given to Mr. Beecher as an anti-slavery agitator and reformer than as

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an editor or preacher. Here his biographers would claim for him the highest distinction that he enjoyed, and indeed the highest of his time. That they should feel it necessary to make the disavowal contained in the first sentence of the following passage, has its amusing side, but there was really danger that they might not be understood:

"We do not wish it to be inferred from our words that Mr. Beecher was the only anti-slavery leader who was doing good service in those days. There were many others, and some perhaps were doing as effective work in a single line as he. But we believe that when the whole sphere of his activity was [*sic*] considered, he went far beyond any man of his time."

Mr. Scoville and Mr. Beecher are at considerable pains to clear their father of any complicity with the abolitionists. Their success is all they could desire, and their endeavor is the more significant because the claim of abolitionism is frequently put forth for those who were as innocent as Mr. Beecher of the faith of Garrison and Phillips. On page 267, comparing Mr. Beecher with the abolitionists, they write:

"He believed in love rather than hate, and most of all, with a triumphant, joyful faith, he believed in the person, presence, and leadership of the Redeemer and Reformer of the world. In all this he separated from the great body, individuals here and there excepted, of the Garrison and Pillsbury school of abolitionists."

The implication of this passage is doubly false; for it implies, first, that the abolitionists believed in hate; and, second, that the abolitionists, as such, were unorthodox, when Garrison himself was hyper-orthodox through the first decade of abolitionism, and his coadjutors were orthodox almost without exception. Mr. Beecher's own estimate of Garrison is given in a series of paragraphs which have the vice of nearly all the quotations from Mr. Beecher's writings and speeches in the book—there is no indication when they were written or whence they came. Other passages could have been quoted giving a very different and much fairer estimate.

Mr. Beecher was not a little infected with the disposition which gave Garrison so much trouble in New England—the disposition to subordinate the welfare of the slave to the glory of the Church. "My earnest desire," he said, "is that slavery may be destroyed by the manifest power of Christianity." And, again: "I would work for the slave for his own sake, but I am sure that I would work ten times as earnestly for the slave for Christ's sake." His biographers are very proud of these fine sentiments, but they will not make an equally favorable impression upon all.

The awakening of Mr. Beecher's anti-slavery consciousness was a late event. In a college discussion he took the abolitionist side against colonization, but in the West his silence only was remarkable. Once he preached two or three anti-slavery sermons at the requisition of the Presbyterian synod with which he was connected! Coming to Brooklyn, the new atmosphere was favorable to a disposition that ever had in it something of opportunist readiness or hesitation, according to the stress of time and circumstance. His biographers divide his anti-slavery work into five stages, two before the war and three succeeding. There was little need for them to bring their rhetoric or their comparisons to the enhancement of the greatness of the part he played at each of these. The simple facts and the quotations from his eloquent and impassioned speeches, sermons, and editorials, would have been quite enough. None who were active in the anti-slavery movement for ten years before the war, or as it dragged the war into the service of emancipation, will fail of gratitude to the writers who, with whatever incidental faults, have given them another opportunity to live over again the ardors and enthusiasms, the hopes and fears and passionate anxieties and glorious triumphs of those years, all of which Beecher saw, and a very great and helpful part of which he was.

There are many interesting portions of the book of which we cannot speak. The childhood and youth of Mr. Beecher are elaborately treated. His intellectual development was very slow. The chapters on his country life and personal traits contain much interesting matter. His passion for precious stones was a remarkable trait. He always carried a number about with him, and their colors were as soothing to him as strains of music.

There are twenty illustrations in the book besides the steel-engraving frontispiece from which every line that thought and care had made is stippled out. It does not compare with the wood engraving after Dielman's portrait that appeared in *Harper's Weekly* at the time of his death. The other illustrations are woodcuts. The most of them are pictures of Mr. Beecher from various photographs. Either the engraving or the printing has produced a miserable result in almost every case; or are they both in fault? The picture of the church as decorated for the funeral is a pitiful travesty of what was really very beautiful. Funeral services are said to have been held in "the three nearest adjoining churches" as well as in Plymouth Church. Churches in the near vicinity are meant.

It is greatly to be hoped that a biography of Mr. Beecher will be written at some future time more worthy of his genius and his fame than this which bears so many marks of haste, and for which the affection and the warmth of the biographers were no sufficient qualification. But the saying is, "A man cannot be hid," and the man that Beecher was has been only partially obscured by the effusion and the zeal of those who have imagined themselves set for his defence. His splendid animal spirits, his immense good-nature, his facile intellect, his cordial sympathies, his glowing eloquence, his broad humanity—all these illuminate the veil, and manifest themselves so clearly that often we forget that any veil is there.

RECENT LAW BOOKS.

THE enterprising "West Publishing Company" of St. Paul has done well in republishing Prof. Pomeroy's very interesting, important, and valuable essay on water-rights and riparian privileges in the Pacific States. It appears now, revised and edited by Mr. Henry Campbell Black, and is divided into sections, and accompanied by much illustration from later cases at the hands of the editor. The exigencies of mining in a new country, as carried on by a horde of people suddenly rushing in, gave rise to very important departures from the common-law doctrine of riparian rights. And the extreme importance of water for purposes of irrigation in such a State as California has raised questions of the greatest gravity and difficulty as to the respective rights of riparian owners and of others who live away from the stream. Of the "wonderful transforming powers of water," the author gives an illustration from his own observation, when,

"after riding . . . a whole day over the foot-hills, parched and brown and barren, I drove the few miles from the ferry at Merced Falls to the village of Snelling, through what was in fact a rural paradise, through green fields, roads overarched with rows of magnificent trees, and door-yards filled with flowers—all the effect of irrigation obtained from the Merced."

"In the great San Joaquin Valley, east of the San Joaquin River, . . . which at times seems to be an expanse of dry sand, there is hardly an acre which cannot be reached by a well-constructed system of irrigation, utilizing the water of the streams which rise in the high *Sierras*, cross the valley at nearly equal intervals, and empty into the San Joaquin. With such irrigation, the whole valley would be, perhaps, the most fertile district in the world."

In such a state of things the limits of the power of individuals and of the States to divert and consume the water of these streams is one of the greatest interest. Prof. Pomeroy, a writer who always helped forward any discussion upon which he entered, threw much light upon the questions here suggested. After stating the common-law rules upon the subject of water-rights, he examined the peculiar local doctrine of "appropriation," under which a first occupant, although not a riparian owner, may divert water from a stream or inland lake, situated upon the public lands, for any purpose, and wholly consume it, and this even though he should take the whole of it. As regards the rights of owners on what are called private streams, where no such appropriation had taken place, it appears that in seven of the Territories statutes make these owners liable "to have perhaps the entire stream appropriated and diverted away for the benefit of a proprietor whose land is situated at any distance from the stream." In California and Nevada this legislation had not taken place; and, in considering what laws should be adopted there, Prof. Pomeroy urges that the natural rights of riparian owners should be preserved, while all relief consistent with these should be afforded to other landowners needing irrigation. He appears to think it not altogether clear that irrigation for the benefit of any number of landowners, not constituting a separate municipality, would constitute a public purpose within the meaning of our constitutions, in regulating the exercises of the right of eminent domain. But that seems a refined sort of a doubt. The immense importance of irrigation in the States of which the writer is speaking is well set forth, and the total failure of the principles of our inherited common law to meet the matter; it would be difficult to state a thing which is more distinctly one of public concern, in such a country, than securing irrigation for vast tracts of land otherwise a desert.

It is singular to read of the slowness of courts and legislatures to check the operations of the hydraulic miners. This, as formerly carried on, seems now to have been declared a public nuisance; but the editor tells us that the first case of importance was decided in 1884. In that case it appeared that this terrific process of washing away whole tracts of country into the rivers had "filled up the natural channel of the Yuba above the level of its banks and of the surrounding country, and also of the Feather below the mouth of the Yuba, to the depth of fifteen feet or more. It has buried with sand and gravel and destroyed all the farms of the riparian owners on either side of the Yuba, over a space two miles wide and twelve miles long." A great deal more it had done of the same sort; and these evils were increasing. The reader wonders what kind of a population of saints and angels it was that lined these rivers, that they should submit to such things so long.

The law of sales of personal property still offers an excellent field for a thoroughly searching

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book. Mr. John F. Baker, in his 'Treatise on the Law of Sales of Goods, Wares, and Merchandise as affected by the Statute of Frauds' (Chicago: Callaghan & Co.), has chosen one of the most perplexed parts of the subject, and he has produced a useful book. The practitioner will find here the important cases, down to the latest ones; and the author's method of making large quotations and statements from the cases in his text puts the reader in possession of much material towards the formation of correct opinions. But Mr. Baker has very imperfectly mastered his own material, and is but a poor guide through all this maze. He shows little apprehension of the historical relation of the cases, and small sign of any deep study of his subject. Yet the lawyer in search of cases, and the student who has already got the clue to them, will find the book of real service.

The second edition of Mr. S. W. Worthington's 'Treatise on the Statutes of Elizabeth against Fraudulent Conveyances, the Bills of Sales Acts, 1878 and 1882, and the Law of Voluntary Dispositions of Property' (London: Stevens & Haynes; Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co.), has been adapted to the considerable changes of the last fifteen years and largely rewritten. It contains references to American cases and to some of our treatises, as Bump on Fraudulent Conveyances and those of Story and Kent. An appendix has the full text of both the statutes of Elizabeth and of the Bills of Sales Acts of 1878 and 1882; and also nine short cases (1700-1733) "from the Coxe and Melmoth MS. reports." This book appears to have been prepared with thoroughness and minute care. Indeed, the author says of the present edition, "No pains have been spared . . . to include every [English] case which may appear to bear upon its subject-matter." A valuable feature of the index of cases is the citation of various places where the case is reported—a thing of great service to one who has occasion to make a thorough study of a case. It seems a pity that the author did not carry this a little further and make it include every place. In point of printing, this is a fine specimen of a law book; and, in the substance of it, it appears to be what its author aimed at, "a complete and trustworthy book," as regards the main topics of which it treats.

A very important and interesting topic is dealt with in Mr. Lewis Hochheimer's 'Law relating to the Custody of Infants' (Baltimore: John Murphy & Co.), a valuable and highly useful book. The author has quoted largely from the cases, and he gives good reasons for it:

> "In the discussion of a branch of the law that, to a greater extent than any other, calls for the direct application of legal principles to the facts and circumstances of particular cases —where, in other words, the place occupied in other branches of municipal law by fixed general rules and settled doctrines is to the greatest extent superseded, in the determination of controversies, by direct reference to legal reason and legal principle—the facts of cases and the reasons advanced for judgments rendered assume unusual importance. Great care has, therefore, been taken in this book to state fully and accurately the facts of important cases, and the language of the courts is, in numerous instances, freely quoted."

The author has compared the English law with the freer American development of it, and has handled the cases with skill and judgment. This book illustrates the advantage there is in allowing to the courts a large discretion in administering the law. It is one of the greatest faults in our American legal administration that we tie up and hamper our judges so much—a sort of confession that we do not believe in their courage or learning, or fitness for their work. This, to be sure, is likely to be a fit and just confession, in a good proportion of cases, where judges are elective. This book is well printed, but it would have been well if something had been saved by having the paper less thick, and something spent in having the binding better.

Great improvements have been made in a new American edition of Benjamin on the Law of Sale of Personal Property, "Bennett's Edition" (Houghton, Mifflin & Co.). The last American edition was the fourth; we know not why the publishers now abandon the numerical name for the new edition—that is hardly one of the improvements, for several of the former editions have been edited by Bennett. The improvements alluded to are a considerable reduction in the size of the volume (by more than 140 pages), and the rewriting of all the previous American notes, and placing them in the form of monographs at the end of the different chapters. An index should be furnished to these American notes; they comprise, in all, something over 170 pages of pretty close print. Of these notes Judge Bennett, the editor, modestly says that they "may or may not be satisfactory to the reader, but they are the result of some honest personal work." They will certainly be very helpful to the reader, whose chief regret will be that the writer is too sparing of contributing his own effort to settle disputed questions and to explain differences. The extensive collection and convenient arrangement of the authorities, however, the clear statement of cases, the evident familiarity of the author with the important discriminations that belong to the subject, and his summing up of the general result of the decisions, make this large body of notes very valuable. It is much the best of the various editions of Benjamin's excellent book with which we are acquainted. It is strange not to find in this edition any reference to the recent English case of Page vs. Morgan, a very important, if somewhat dubious authority on the doctrine of "acceptance and actual receipt." There are a number of important misprints in the index.

Mr. A. Parlett Lloyd of the Baltimore bar has furnished a convenient and useful book, in his 'Treatise on the Law of Building and Buildings' (Houghton, Mifflin & Co., pp. li., 618). It belongs to a class of legal handbooks which aim to be of service to busy practitioners in a very practical way, without aspiring to help them by offering the results of any deep research or reflection. The absence of any special American treatise on this subject is regarded by the author as "possibly the most remarkable omission in the literature of law in this country." About a quarter of the book is devoted to "Building Contracts," somewhat less than that to "Building Leases," and, again, to "Easements relating to Buildings"; a still shorter consideration is given to "Mechanics' Liens." Added to all this, and of very great practical convenience, are a "Digest of Leading Decisions and Cases on Building Contracts in the United States," and, as regards mechanics' liens, the "Statutory Provisions of all the States and Territories." A serviceable appendix of some fifty pages contains a Glossary of Terms used by architects and builders, and a collection of forms. Much care seems to have been taken to make the book a helpful one. If the Glossary should be thought not merely serviceable, but superserviceable in offering a definition of "arch" and "pig-iron" and "vestibule," on the other hand, a layman may thank it for certifying him as to "astragal" and "strut," to say nothing of "scantling" and "ashlar."

The late Prof. Leone Levi's 'International Law, with Materials for a Code' of that topic (D. Appleton & Co., pp. xii, 346), is a valuable addition to the "International Scientific Series." The author wrote with the aim of helping "to reduce into the form of a code the leading principles of the Law of Nations," and of adding something to what others have attempted: "their works did not include the positive portion of the law—that resulting from treaties and conventions." The work seems to us happily devised, instructive, and calculated to be very useful. There are two preliminary chapters, one of an historical nature, and the second setting forth the "political condition" of the different states of the world, with statistics as to population and extent of territory. This last chapter, in the slight statements which it attempts here and there of the treaty relations of these different states, should perhaps have had more regard to the wants of readers in this country. The body of the work is made up of what the author modestly calls "Materials for a Code of International Law," consisting of 499 brief articles. Considerably more than half of this part of the book (fourteen chapters) relates to treaties, and to "treaty clauses on particular subjects." There is also a valuable chapter on private international law. This little volume has, of course, but a general and brief consideration of its subject; but within the limits which it has assigned itself, it seems to us a book of much value. In these days of telegraphs and treaties, and international postal unions and monetary unions, we are all, in a new sense, citizens of the world; in such a book as this we may easily come to a better understanding of our new relations.

'Pratt's Manual of Banking Law' (Washington: A. S. Pratt & Sons; pp. vi, 179) is said upon its title-page to be "designed as a clear and accurate statement, in a small compass, of the general principles of banking law and the duties, powers, and liabilities of bank officers." The book appears to have been carefully prepared by a competent person, and to accomplish the design above set forth.

A commentary on the existing Federal legislation upon an important topic is furnished in the 'Removal of Causes from the State to Federal Courts,' by Emory Speer, United States Judge for the Southern District of Georgia (Boston: Little, Brown & Co.; pp. 136). It is called out by "the enactment of sweeping changes in the jurisdiction of the national courts by the Act of Congress of March 3, 1887." This act, and the other chief statutes of recent years of the same sort, belong to what the author calls "the ominous dates March 2 and March 3," and they justify his animadversions upon the habit of "our national law-makers to reserve for the feverish wrangle of the last hours of the Congress" the handling of such delicate and extremely important subjects. The details of this book are not for our columns, but we can speak cordially of the pains and good sense and thoroughness which are shown in its brief but, as it would seem, sufficient discussion of a perplexed matter. In appendices the author gives the Act of 1887 in parallel columns with the then existing legislation; a set of forms; and, in a very instructive and helpful tabular form, "the essential elements" of the jurisdiction of the Circuit Court of the United States under the Removal Acts of 1867, 1875, and 1887.

Mr. W. Hastie's 'Outlines of the Science of Jurisprudence' (Edinburgh: T. & T. Clark; New York: Scribner & Welford; pp. xliv, 282) consists of translations from the Juristic Encyclopædias of Puchta, Friedländer, Falck, and Ahrens. The translator quotes Prof. Sheldon Amos as saying that "modern jurisprudence is emphatically a German creation," and adds:

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"To give an introduction to the elements, methods, and forms of that creation is the main purpose of the present effort." One may agree with Mr. Hastie as to the very great advantage that is likely to come to the English law from a better acquaintance with German authors than is common, and yet may heartily regret that he should have chosen the mainly arid and repellant articles which are here translated. One of them begins thus: "Science is a living organism, and has, as such, a supreme positive principle of life. The essential function of scientific encyclopædia is to show what is the idea that animates the several members of this organism," etc. *That*, we venture to think, is not the way to approach the colts that are grazing in the pastures of the English law, and still less their elders. And yet it is perfectly true that Germany has much to teach us before we shall thoroughly understand our own law; and we are glad to see that Mr. Hastie proposes soon to publish a translation of Brunner's 'History of the Sources of the Law of England.' Would that he might follow it up with the same author's incomparable 'History of Trial by Jury.'

The Rev. Dr. A. H. Lewis's 'Critical History of Sunday Legislation from 321 to 1888, A. D.' (D. Appleton & Co.; pp. x, 279) is an excellent addition to the literature of the Sunday question. The calling of the author might lead one to expect an endeavor to enforce certain opinions upon that subject; and, in his brief preface and at the beginning of the book, he does intimate a view that Sunday legislation is put upon too low a ground nowadays: "Either the people in the churches and out of them increase in wickedness, . . . or else there *is something radically defective* in the claims by which Sunday observance is supported. The explanation lies in this last fact. It is wise, therefore, to seek the origin and philosophy of Sunday legislation as they appear in history." And again: "Some now claim that Sunday legislation is not based on religious grounds. This claim is contradicted by the facts of all the centuries. Every Sunday law sprang from a religious sentiment. . . . To say that the present Sunday laws do not deal with the day as a religious institution is to deny every fact in the history of such legislation. The claim is a shallow subterfuge." But these passages are about all there is in the book which indicate that the author has a case to make out. It is a fair, learned, impartial, interesting, and instructive collection and summing up of Sunday legislation, from Constantine's injunction to rest on the day of the sun-god down to the present year. The last chapter has a brief summary of the legislation of all our States and Territories, and the work is crowned with a full index. A lawyer will find some questions raised in his own mind which are not here answered. How was it, after all the guards thrown around the Sunday by old decrees and laws, that the English courts used to do business on Sundays? In Bracton's 'Note Book' and in the new Selden Society volume several cases occur, of the thirteenth century, where the King's courts appear to have been sitting on Sunday. In the next century the 'Mirror' complains of this sitting on Sunday as an "abusion." And even as late as 1465, in the Year Book of Edward IV., it looks as if the same thing went on. Was this by reason of a dispensation, such as Blackstone mentions, or of special circumstances not recorded?

Prof. Christopher Stuart Patterson of the University of Pennsylvania has published a clear and useful book in his 'The United States and the States under the Constitution' (Philadelphia: T. & J. W. Johnson & Co.; pp. xxxi, 290). The author indicates the character of the work when he says: "Its only purpose is to show by a classification and an analysis of the judgments of the Supreme Court of the United States what the relations of the United States and the States are under the Constitution, as *judicially construed by the courts of last resort.*" The reader will be struck with the intelligent and candid way in which controverted questions are discussed, and with the careful manner in which the cases have been collected, stated, and arranged. The book is a helpful guide to the doctrine of the Supreme Court on the leading topics of constitutional law; and rather more than half of it is contained in the two chapters that deal with the regulation of commerce, and impairing the *obligation of contracts.*

We will mention a few points in which the work seems open to criticism. In § 125 the statement seems inaccurate that "In the order of supremacy, treaties, duly ratified, are of inferior authority to . . . constitutional acts of Congress." Is it not rather true, as the Supreme Court (Swayne, J.) says, in The Cherokee Tobacco, 11 Wall, at p. 621, that "A treaty may supersede a prior act of Congress, and an act of Congress may supersede a prior treaty"? In § 12 the author says that, "Until . . . 1862, . . . neither statesmen nor jurists had asserted that Congress had . . . the power of making anything but gold or silver coin a legal tender." If this be so, nothing can show better how little close scrutiny had been given to the subject, for it is manifest upon the face of the Constitution that Congress is not limited to these particular kinds of coin. In §§ 12 and 13 the author seems to allow more force than it deserves to the argument that, if the power to "coin money" be regarded as an *express* power to issue a metallic legal-tender currency, it is an implied prohibition to issue a paper legal-tender currency. This point, like almost all others involved in the legal-tender controversy, was admirably handled by Judge Hare in a powerful but little known opinion, in 1864, in the case of Borie vs. Trott, 5 Philad. Rep., 366. "All that can safely be inferred," he says, "in the case of such an instrument [as the Constitution], from an authorization to use a particular means, is not that other means are forbidden, but that this should, if the case requires it, be used." The index of cases is somewhat carelessly arranged. Let any one try, for instance, to find the case of the Charles River Bridge vs. the Warren Bridges. But we will not leave so good a book with fault-finding as our last word; rather with the expression of a confident expectation that the author will hereafter build more upon so good a foundation.

Mr. Joel P. Bishop, the well-known legal author, has printed, with notes and a supplement (Chicago: T. H. Flood & Co.), his Address on 'Common Law and Codification,' delivered before the South Carolina Bar Association at Columbia last December. Mr. Bishop wages an irreconcilable conflict with the advocates of codification. In his view, it was the sin of codification that brought death into the Roman world, and all their woe. Codification seems to him to put an end to reason in the law, and to jurists. It is, he says, the function of jurists, as distinguished from judges, to ascertain just what and how many are the elementary principles of the law, reduced to their smallest proportions. He is very severe upon a class of legal writers whom he terms "pirates," and he speaks of himself as having passed "about forty years, not in writing the jurist works I am calling for, but in contributing thief-food, which, I trust, is performing its humble part in the fattening for a slaughter, whereby the advent of jurists will become possible." His opposition to codification *now* we take to be wholly sound: "If our common law is to be turned into statute law, in all decency let it first be made ready for the metamorphosis. Give it jurists, and let them discover and set before us, duly arranged and condensed, its principles. Do not codify a medley." The jurists, it may be added, will have much to do in the way of an ordered historical exploration of our cases before they can do their work properly. This business is quietly going forward now, and it is putting a soul under the ribs of death. Ignorant jurists are not what we want.

HINSDALE'S OLD NORTHWEST.

The Old Northwest: With a View of the Thirteen Colonies as constituted by the Royal Charters. By B. A. Hinsdale, Ph.D., Professor at the University of Michigan. New York: Townsend MacCoun. 1888. 8vo, 440 pages, 11 maps.

THIS is a centennial volume, published one hundred years after Gen. Rufus Putnam and his forty-seven associates landed on the site of Marietta, April 7, 1788, to live under the "Ordinance of 1787." The "Old Northwest" is defined, in a note to page 280, as embracing the States of Ohio, Indiana, Illinois, Michigan, and Wisconsin, Minnesota east of the Mississippi, and the Erie purchase in Pennsylvania—in all, 265,878 square miles, with a population in the five entire States alone of 11,206,668 by the census of 1880. A country of such extent, and which has in one short century filled up with so many millions of human beings and their teeming wealth, studded over with schools, colleges, and churches, crossed by 50,000 miles of railroad, is worthy of a history. A hundred years ago it contained a few squalid settlements of French *habitants* at Detroit and Sault Ste. Marie in Michigan, at Vincennes and Terre Haute in Indiana, Kaskaskia and Cahokia in Illinois—oases in a desert of roving red savages. With good old-fashioned Fourth of July patriotism, our author has devoted his last and longest chapter to the startling figures denoting this progress, drawing freely on the compendium of the last United States census.

In the opening words of his preface, Prof. Hinsdale thus justifies his undertaking: "Save New England alone, there is no section of the United States, embracing several States, that is so distinct an historical unit, and that so readily yields to historical treatment as the 'Old Northwest.'" Although our author does not pursue the story of the several States beyond their admission into the Union (except in noticing the attempt made in 1823 to turn Illinois into a slave State), the reader of his volume will charitably assume that his group of States does not readily yield to historic treatment as a unit, rather than conclude that the author was unequal to an easy task. He has produced not so much a book as a medley of detached historic essays, reaching back to the first discovery of the North American continent. There is no attempt at or any pretence of independent research. The matter of the story is taken from easily accessible sources—the best passages from Bancroft's History, from Hildreth, or from McMaster; in fact, a few literal extracts from Bancroft are the most readable parts of the book. The style, at its best, strikes us as a studied imitation of the splendid antitheses and clever transitions of Macaulay; often it sinks into newspaper gush, sometimes into slang. Of Macaulay's great art of exciting

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admiration of historic personages, our author possesses but a very slight share. The maps are mainly copied from Labberton's New Historical Atlas; they are neatly executed and easily understood.

With all its want of originality, of style, and of historic method, the book is both useful and entertaining. Very few people read Bancroft; McMaster, though treating of the weightiest events in American history and entertainingly written, is in comparatively few hands. The one merit of Prof. Hinsdale's book is, that it fixes the reader's attention on the three "providential" turns in the history of the Northwest—for he maintains that whoever does not see the hand of Providence here, will see it nowhere in the annals of mankind.

First, that the Northwest, explored and conquered by French priests, soldiers, and trappers, became English. He says (p. 68) rather effusively, and giving credit to Mr. John Fiske for the conception:

"We must not allow our admiration of what the French had done in the West to blind us to the fact that the British cause was the cause of the Northwest of America. . . . Montcalm and Wolfe were both gallant soldiers and able commanders, . . . but they stood on the Heights of Abraham that September day for very different things: Montcalm for the old régime, Wolfe for the House of Commons; Montcalm for the alliance of King and priest, Wolfe for habeas corpus and free inquiry; Montcalm for the past, Wolfe for the future; Montcalm for Louis XV. and Madame de Pompadour, Wolfe for George Washington and Abraham Lincoln."

After having, by the Treaty of Paris, driven the French not only out of the country between the Ohio and the Great Lakes, but out of Canada too, the British Crown, by proclamation, forbade any new settlements or appropriations of land west of the Alleghanies, on the pretext assigned by its advisers of avoiding war with the powerful Indian tribes who occupied the great West; but, as American patriots believed, from fear that the colonies might become too populous, too strong, and too independent. After long-continued efforts, Doctor Franklin in 1772 induced the British Ministry to modify its policy, and to authorize the establishment of two colonies west of the mountains; but before the charter passed the seals, revolt broke out in Boston, and British initiative in America ceased for ever. However, Lord Dunmore, the royal Governor of Virginia, holding large interests in Western lands, pushed to the last moment of his authority the Virginia settlements beyond the Kanawha. Yet when the war broke out, there were no English settlers beyond the Ohio, and the recognition of American independence could not, on the usual rule of *uti possidetis*, have entitled the Americans to an acre of that magnificent heritage of freedom.

Here came the second turning point in Northwestern history — the expedition of George Rogers Clark, who left the falls of the Ohio for the Wabash in June, 1778, with two hundred men, and occupied Kaskaskia and Vincennes with the assent of the *habitants*. He was anxious to proceed to the conquest of Detroit, but could not obtain the needful force; and that point remained in British hands till evacuated in 1796 under the Jay treaty. A footnote to page 155 tells the sad story of Señor Vigo, a St. Louis merchant who advanced $12,000 to Clark upon drafts on New Orleans. These were protested. The loan enabled Clark to conquer the Northwest for the great Republic, which was so ungrateful that Vigo's heirs were not repaid till 1876.

Of course, the fate both of the Northwest and of the Southwest was decided by the negotiators at Paris, in the weary months which passed between the news of the surrender of Yorktown and the definitive peace. The courts of France and Spain were but too willing to betray their American allies, and proposed to annex the Northwest to British Canada, while turning the South between the Alleghanies and the Mississippi into a sort of neutral zone, an Indian territory, partly under Spanish, partly under American, protection. The map at page 176 of our volume shows the slender proportions which this proposal would have given to the new nation. The firmness of Dr. Franklin and Adams, aided by the good will of the British Whig Ministry, saved the West to freedom and to prosperity. Lecky says on this subject (vol. iv, p. 273):

"The question of boundaries, however, presented great difficulty, and Shelburne determined, probably wisely, that he would if possible lay the foundation of future friendship by acting as liberally as possible in this concession. The vast unsettled Western country was acknowledged to be part of the United States, England only retaining the right of the free navigation of the Mississippi, which was made the western boundary."

The third question in the fortunes of the Northwest was still open. It was American, not French nor British. But the territory was claimed by New York, Virginia, Connecticut, and Massachusetts, while the statesmen of the small seashore States, especially of Maryland, Delaware, and New Jersey, insisted that the unsettled West, having been conquered by the common blood and treasure, belonged to the United States. This contention had gone on during the war of the Revolution, and had caused Maryland to stand out until 1781 from joining in the Articles of Confederation. Our author is pretty full, and often tries to be eloquent, in speaking of the long contest of the sea-to-sea colonies among themselves and with their less fortunate sisters, and of the land cessions made by New York, Massachusetts, Virginia, and Connecticut, which closed it; but his highest pitch of enthusiasm is reserved for the crowning act in the Northwestern drama—the ordinance of July 13, 1787, which for ever excluded slavery from the vast expanse between the Ohio River and the lakes. The two heroes whose praise is sung by Prof. Hinsdale are Dr. Manasseh Cutler, founder of the Ohio Company, by whose efforts the ordinance was carried through Congress, and Arthur St. Clair, the first Governor of the Territory. St. Clair was removed by President Jefferson in November, 1802, a few weeks only before the recognition of Ohio as a State would have put an end to his Federal Governorship. He was removed for "offensive partisanship," in fact, "for observing in an address lately delivered by you," as Secretary Madison writes to him, "to the Convention held at Chillicothe, an intemperance and indecorum of language towards the Legislature of the United States, and a disorganizing spirit and tendency, of very evil example." St. Clair retired to his "Hermitage," near Ligonier, Pennsylvania; but his creditors, men who had lent him money for the service of the Government, swept it away; they took even the pension, tardily granted him for his gallant services in the war.

"Pathetic in the extreme are the glimpses that we have of his last years. Hon. Lewis Cass, who had known him in happier days, found the old soldier and civilian in his rude cabin eking a livelihood by selling supplies to the wagoners on the road. . . . To him who is acquainted with St. Clair's history, the name always suggests a striking example of ingratitude of men and of republics" (p. 313).

Not to speak of the other merits of the Ordinance of 1787, its chief glory rests on its well-known sixth article of *compact:* "There shall be neither slavery nor involuntary servitude in the said territory otherwise than in the punishment of crimes whereof the parties shall have been duly convicted." The high importance of this short clause can only be estimated when we consider the efforts which were made first in Ohio, then more than once in the Territory of Indiana, and finally in Illinois, both as a Territory and as a State in the days of the noble Governor Coles, to legalize slaveholding. The restraining influence of the "Compact" decided the long and often doubtful battle in favor of freedom. With a slaveholding Northwest, with slaveholding Illinois, the days of emancipation might even now lie in the dim future. Our author does not tell the glorious deeds of Gov. Coles as eloquently as do Lincoln's biographers in the *Century*, yet he says of him: "All in all, it does not seem extravagant to say that Mr. Coles's arrival in the State, in 1819, was more important in its results than the arrival of any other man since Clark summoned Kaskaskia to surrender in 1778" (p. 363).

A separate chapter treats of the Connecticut Western Reserve. When first speaking of the strip of 120 miles along the lake, of which Connecticut reserved to herself the soil, our author, with much pride and small gratitude, points out a blunder in Bancroft. "Grayson (who opposed the acceptance of the cession) can be excused for magnifying 3,250,000 acres of land into 6,000,000, as the geography of the Lake Erie was not then carefully (!) known; but what shall we say of Mr. Bancroft, who repeats the blunder in the last edition of his history?" (p. 248).

American Fishes: A Popular Treatise upon the Game and Food Fishes of North America, with especial Reference to Habits and Methods of Capture. By G. Brown Goode, Assistant Secretary of the Smithsonian Institution. New York: Standard Book Co. 1888.

THERE is certainly a need for just such a book as this of Mr. Goode's for popular use, for the angler as well as the ichthyologist, and treating of the humble as well as of the aristocratic fishes. Of course, it would be impossible to discuss in one volume the 1,750 species of fish that Mr. Goode says are indigenous to our continent, and he has excluded all but those which have value for sport or food. The tarpum or tarpon is mentioned in the former class, to which he has of late been discovered to belong most emphatically. Strange to say, the sturgeon is left out, though in addition to his economic uses he has, within the last year or two, shown instances of his capacity for yielding great sport to the angler. The opening chapter is on the perch, which Mr. Goode thinks does not hold a high enough place as a food or a sport-affording fish.

The chapter on striped bass is worthy of the high character of this fish, and an interesting feature is an illustration from a photograph of twelve bass "caught off S. W. Bridge, Newport, in two hours and five minutes with rod and line—average weight 43⅝ pounds." The spelling of bridge with a capital B gives a desirable flavor of uncertainty as to whether they were all taken with the *one* rod and line which appears in the picture. Among the most entertaining chapters to the general reader are those on the sheepshead, the bluefish, the squeteague or weakfish (called on the southern coast the sea-trout), and the black bass. More is generally known about the qualities of these fish for the angler than of many other kinds, and one ought from the book alone to know how, when, and where to catch them. Mr.

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Goode in the "pike" chapter has, along with all other angling writers, been unable to resist quoting Gesner's well-worn tale of the nineteen-foot fish.

The last fifty pages are devoted to the salmonidæ, and begin with a most interesting instantaneous photograph of a salmon leaping up a waterfall. There is, on page 447, a statement made by a Norwegian observer, of the height to which salmon can leap, which appears incredible. Dr. Landmark, who is quoted, says that two masts have been placed across the Drams River. These masts are three and a half feet apart horizontally, and the Professor states that he has seen a salmon jump from the river sixteen feet below across both masts. This is about twice as great a leap as any of those recorded by trustworthy British or American observers. Mr. Goode says:

"I am inclined to the view that the natural habitat of the salmon is in the fresh waters, the more so since there are so many instances—such as those of the Stormontfield ponds in England—where it has been confined for years in lakes without apparent detriment. . . . The salmon of Lake Ontario and its tributaries are thought not to enter salt water," etc.

How can the "natural habitat" of any anadromous fish be either fresh or salt water? Does Mr. Goode mean that the salmon violates his natural tendencies when he goes to the sea, and is in a manner forced to migrate thither? and can he name a single instance in which a salmon has failed to go to the sea after spawning, when possible to do so? Do the salmon which he says are confined in the Stormontfield ponds without detriment, ever breed there the second time? and what authority has he for saying that the Lake Ontario salmon are thought not to go to salt water? There is easy access to the sea from Lake Ontario through the St. Lawrence, and salmon were formerly abundant there. Their way to the upper lakes is shut off by Niagara Falls, and no salmon are or ever have been found in Lake Erie or the lakes about it. Of late years some of the depleted rivers tributary to Lake Ontario have been restocked by the Canadian authorities with the result of again bringing salmon there. A number of streams tributary to the upper lakes have also been stocked with salmon fry within the past ten years, but no salmon has been seen. It has also been established in the past few years that salmon do not, with any uniformity, return annually to "their natural habitat," fresh water, but sometimes stay in the sea two years and perhaps longer. On page 446, Mr. Goode says: "The absenteeism of salmon [from fresh water] is due principally to the dearth of desirable food in the rivers"; therefore we may suppose that the prevalence among salmon of conduct supposed to be peculiar to Irish landlords is justifiable, though the term does convey a tinge of reproach.

These statements on the interesting question of the habits of the salmon are astonishing for any scientific man to make, and detract much from the authority of an otherwise excellent book.

Taxation. Its Principles and Methods. Translated from the 'Scienza delle Finanze' of Dr. Luigi Cossa, Professor in the University of Pavia, Italy. With an introduction and notes by Horace White. Together with a compilation of the State Tax System of New York and Pennsylvania. G. P. Putnam's Sons. 1888.

If one may distinguish between the books that teach and the books that educate, Prof. Cossa's 'Science of the Finances' belongs to the latter class. The author never dogmatizes, and never attempts to suppress or belittle the arguments which weigh against his own conclusions. The student must constantly estimate the relative weight of opposing considerations. Those who allow that "the principal and most characteristic difference between one human intellect and another is the ability to judge correctly of evidence," and who also recognize how little the training of this faculty is attempted in our colleges, will appreciate at once the educational value of Prof. Cossa's method. The many-sided treatment which he gives is peculiarly desirable in considering the questions relating to taxation. No subject affects individual and class interests so vitally, and hence none has been so distorted by special pleading. The false and confused views to which this special pleading has given rise are largely removed when all sides are given a fair hearing. No remarkable judicial acumen is then needed to discern many principles as clear as the law of gravitation, and which would have been admitted long ago had not their recognition played havoc with certain vested "rights."

The faults of Prof. Cossa's work are those of style. It is constructed upon the German model. The author has the German professor's love of keen discrimination and elaborate classification. In making clear and distinct the outlines of his subject, his method is that of the anatomist, and not that of the artist. He dissects instead of portraying; and though he always cuts at the joint and never into the bone, it is only the scientific student who can appreciate and enjoy his work. The absence of literary flavor is further occasioned by the severe condensation which is one of the admirable characteristics of the work. Then, too, the treatment of the subject is always abstract. The fact that the book is written from the point of view of an Italian does, indeed, often lend a peculiar interest; but one misses the concrete statement of significant facts regarding the economic condition of Italy.

Turning for a moment to the matter of the book, one notes that the author rejects the Manchester doctrine that the duties of the state are simply those of protecting life and property, yet does not belong to the new school which teaches that taxation is a practicable and desirable method of bringing about a more equitable distribution of wealth. One of the duties which he assigns to the state other than those of "the night-watchman" is the control of railways and telegraphs. Yet he is so far from being Socialistic in his tendencies, that he classes the school taxes among those to be paid upon the principle of fees, to be fixed precisely by the expense occasioned by each recipient. To Professor Cossa as to Professor Roscher, the American idea of supporting the public schools by taxing merely the property-owners would probably appear "dangerously Socialistic."

Prof. Cossa does not in this volume deal specifically with the question of protection, though he lays down the principles necessary to its solution. When he urges that no person or corporation should be exempt from taxation; when he declares that there should be "a minimum of difference between the amount turned into the treasury and that obtained from the contributors"; when he shows how indirect taxes burden unjustly the incomes of the poor, he destroys the foundations of the protective system. In one respect, however, he is not in sympathy with most free-traders. The fact that indirect taxation may be made to yield immense revenues without the people being aroused to consider the extent, or the justice, or the necessity of their burdens, is not even mentioned as an argument against the system. In an American writer, Prof. Cossa's leaning towards indirect taxation would indicate a student of political extravagance, and not a student of political economy. His view, however, is fully explained by the extreme fiscal necessities of the Italian Government.

Regarding the problems of local taxation, perhaps the most interesting view maintained by Prof. Cossa is that in levying the tax upon dwellings the smallest house-rents should be exempt from taxation, and in general the rates should increase with the rental value. In America the taxes upon dwellings fall indirectly upon the renters, and for this reason their justice or injustice has never been considered. The brunt of our local taxation falls upon the property-owners; yet in a city like New York, where 96 per cent. of the people are renters, we cannot doubt that that part of the local taxation which does not fall upon the land is in a large degree borne by these renters, the poorest obtaining no exemption and the richest paying no increased rate. Prof. Cossa's view on this question is by no means new, since the French Constitutional Assembly incorporated in its legislation an extreme form of the same idea, and, in the avowed attempt to tax all incomes equally, assumed that rents below 100 francs indicated incomes only twice that sum, while rents above 12,000 francs indicated incomes twelve times that figure. Of course, Prof. Cossa would favor no such progression as this, since he is anything but radical in his political ideas, and rejects the principle of progressive taxation, except that he would exempt an *existence minimum*. The consideration for the incomes of the working classes, which he shows in considering the tax on dwellings, is more than neutralized by his defence of the *octroi* or municipal customs duties. We regret to notice that Prof. Cossa believes that, on the whole, the *octroi* duties are being increased, though some cities have abolished them. This indicates the continued backwardness of Italy's political development. Absurd as our national tariff may be, Americans have always had municipal free trade.

The American notes to the volume constitute nearly a fourth of it, and contain brief discussions of our American problems, such as the taxation of mortgages, of personal property, of corporations, etc. The method of treatment is historical and statistical rather than mathematical. In addition to these notes there is an appendix to the volume containing a bibliography of the science of finance.

Volcanoes and Earthquakes: A Popular Account of their Nature, Causes, Effects, and Geographical Distribution, from Personal Observation in the Hawaiian and Philippine Islands, Japan, Iceland, the Mediterranean Basin, Spain, and the United States. By Samuel Kneeland, A.M., M.D. Boston: D. Lothrop Co. 1888. 8vo, pp. 220, 16 plates.

In this book Dr. Kneeland has given a series of interesting sketches of his personal adventures and more or less scientific observations on several of the most important volcanic districts of the world, some of which have rarely been visited by intelligent observers. The volume is intended for the use of the popular reader rather than the man of science; indeed, from the point of view of geology it is without importance, except from occasional observations of certain phenomena connected with volcanic ejections. The most interesting parts of the work are those which record the author's personal observation in the Philippine Islands, where he had an opportunity of seeing the district of the Laguna which lies to the southeast of Manila. Such, for instance, is his account

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of the eruption of the volcano of Mayon. The chapters on earthquakes give a tolerable account of the well-known phenomena exhibited in a number of the more important modern disturbances.

There is nothing in the book of any particular scientific value, but it may well serve the purposes of the reader who wishes a brief story of the principal facts connected with such disturbances. The illustrations of the book are numerous, and some of them which are reproduced from photographs are good. Those of a diagrammatic nature are generally poor. They are particularly faulty in that they very much exaggerate the slope of volcanic cones.

The book is handsomely printed, and has a sufficient index.

In Nesting Time. By Olive Thorne Miller. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 1888. Pp. viii, 276.

MRS. MILLER is already pleasantly known to the lovers of "bird-life" as the author of a book with that title, and this volume continues a series of observations in a style which John Burroughs has rendered somewhat distinctive. It is the reverse of formal or technical ornithology, and all the more agreeable to most persons on that account. The sketches in the little collection are the record of careful observation, and scrupulously true in every particular. Few, if any, of the observations are "new," but they have that interest which attaches to all genuine studies from life. Many of our common birds, those which are too common for the professional ornithologist to notice particularly, are brought into the pages as real live feathered individuals, "honestly 'brothers of ours,'" whose personal peculiarities stand out in strong relief under the author's sympathetic pen. Some of her epithets are very happy, as "flutterbudget" for the brown thrush, and "a bird of affairs" for the blue jay. Any one could look at the same things if he would but look out of the window, or make a pet of one of our native birds; but there are many of us who do not see what we look at till some one like Mrs. Miller points it out, and many of the most charming bits of bird-life would escape us without some such reminder as we are here given.

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Corbett, J. For God and Gold. Macmillan & Co. 50 cents.
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